



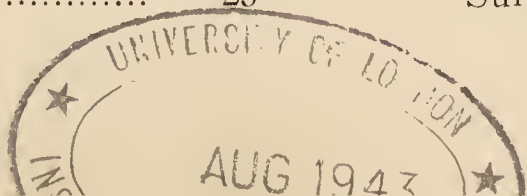
THE NEW ERA

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January to December, 1942

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The Ann Arbor Conference of the New Education Fellowship

W. Carson Ryan

University of North Carolina, U.S.A.

SOME eighteen hundred persons attended the Eighth International Conference of the New Education Fellowship at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, U.S.A., July 6th to 12th. Those of us who had attended previous N.E.F. meetings were not certain at first that this was going to be much like the European gatherings of past years, but as the week wore on it seemed as if more and more of the spirit of previous conferences entered into this conference at Ann Arbor.

Only a few individuals from European countries were in attendance, of course. On the other hand, North and South America were represented far more fully than has been possible heretofore. We have always had excellent Canadian delegations, but Mexico, Central and South American countries have in the past had only a few representatives—distinguished individuals on a number of occasions, to be sure, but never in any large numbers, despite the close relationship that

once existed between South America and the European new education movement through Ferrière, Decroly, Mlle Hamaïde and others. At Ann Arbor, thanks to the recently developed interest in hemispheric good will, Mexico and Central and South America were represented by large delegations of highly competent people. Canada, naturally, did herself proud, taking a major part in planning the conference and sending leaders in education, both men and women, from every part of the Dominion to share in the deliberations.

'Education in a World of Nations'

When Professor Harold Rugg, as United States representative for the New Education Fellowship, opened the conference in the beautiful auditorium of the Rackham Building, it was with words of appreciation for the efforts of the pioneers of the New Education Fellowship—Beatrice Ensor, Adolphe Ferrière, Pierre Bovet, Elizabeth Rotten, and others, who 'in

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spite of their limited numbers and their lack of official prestige', had had the power of spirit and integrity of purpose that drew like-minded leaders from around the globe, until, at the outbreak of the War, there were 51 national sections and 23 educational magazines in 15 different languages in the Fellowship organization.

Dr. Rugg's statement was followed by greetings from the President of the University of Michigan, the President of the Progressive Education Association, and the United States Commissioner of Education. Commissioner Studebaker, of the Federal Bureau, welcomed the delegates on behalf of 'that office in one Federal Government which represents the manifold interests of all educational groups and organizations of this Nation'. He expressed particular satisfaction at welcoming 'those friends and neighbours of ours who have come from the other Republics of this hemisphere', and closed with the hope that 'this important international conference' would seek the ways and contrive the means 'by which we may all of us, in our various capacities, contribute to that new programme of education—an education in and for and by fellowship through co-operation and with a co-operative society as its aim'. Responding to the greetings were J. G. Althouse, of the University of Toronto, Gustavo Adolfo Otero, Minister of Education, Bolivia, and Luis Sanchez Ponton, Minister of Education, Mexico.

The main address of the opening session was by Dr. William H. Kilpatrick, of Teachers College, Columbia University, who took the place of Laurin Zilliacus when it became evident at the very last moment that the chairman's efforts to reach America for the Conference would be in vain. Dr. Kilpatrick's assigned subject was 'Education in a World of Nations'. Pointing out that for a large part of the world brute force has become the only effective factor at work, he said :

We cannot run the world on a basis of broken treaties, lying propaganda, and brute force. We must somehow establish once and for all the reign

of justice, of the plighted word given in a formal treaty, of the acceptance of common responsibility for a common peace based on world law and order.

As to what the schools could do toward this, Dr. Kilpatrick was convinced they could do much. 'We must take', he said, 'the three fundamental conceptions of (1) regard for others, (2) justice as the ethically equal treatment of all, and (3) the acceptance of the responsibility for the common good, and teach them in all the ways we can to all under our care of whatever age and development'. But, he added, we in the United States must go further, in order to make amends for our mistakes in the past—we must reteach history, and 'we must cultivate intimate and friendly relationships on an ever-widening scale with the school people of all countries . . . This is, as I see it, the chief purpose of our meeting here together.'

'A Free Society and the Servile State'

In the Monday morning general session Horace M. Kallen, of the New School for Social Research, reviewed historically totalitarianism and democracy, pointing out the development from the time of Thomas Jefferson down to Hitler and Mussolini of the realization that 'free society and the servile state could not live together'. The liberation and spread of the new education is indispensable to the future of peace, Dr. Kallen said : 'the new education must win its way on its merits against the vested interests of entrenched privilege, of political and religious obscurantism, and of the cultural lag', but it needs to unite intelligence with courage if it is to ensure the victory of democracy and guarantee the future of peace.

In the Monday evening programme Waldo Frank, author and lecturer, speaking on 'The Life Problems of the Two Americas', painted a picture of the vast discrepancies in culture between the two continents—the differences and misunderstandings that spring, in part at least, from the North American mechanistic development. He urged in the schools courses in the comparative history, literature, art, and religion of the two Americas, but above all he asked for 'an awareness of the intimate, still, eternal voices that make men know what is

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Man and what is the true food of Man'. As our spiritual and emotional appetite grows, knowledge will grow, he asserted, and then 'we will be aware of the deep treasures of America Hispana—treasures needed by us, as they need ours, if it be true that man lives not by bread alone.'

For one evening meeting the Conference turned aside from the international theme to hear reports from representatives of different sections of the United States on the American scene. Jonathan Daniels, newspaper editor and author, spoke on 'The South : Its Land and its People' ; Paul Engle, poet, on the Midwest ; and Carl Sandburg on 'The People, Yes'.

China, Italy, Latin America

The international theme was resumed at the Wednesday general sessions, when the Honorable Hu Shih, Ambassador of China to the United States, discussed *America and the Far East*, and Count Carlo Sforza, Carnegie Visiting Lecturer, described the situation in Italy. Count Sforza placed Italy in the category of invaded countries, asserting that

Italians will never forgive Fascism for having made of their country a German colony.

Speaking for the future of democracy in the Western Hemisphere, Carlos Davila, former Chilean Ambassador to the United States, said that 'information and affection' were the two missing pillars in a century of Pan-Americanism. American solidarity is not to be attained the economic way, he said, but psychologically—through the menace of a common danger and the faith in a great common cause. Dr. M. J. Bond, of the University of Pennsylvania, pointed out that the roots of totalitarianism go 'deep down through the centuries', and that any good new social order must be based on constructive planning, international in scope, and that now was the opportunity for Latin American countries to 'speed their economic emancipation as a corollary to their long accomplished political emancipation'.

Mexico and Britain

Mexico and England held the chief attention of the Conference on Thursday morning. Dr.

Ponton said Mexico's interest in the Ann Arbor gathering was threefold:

First of all, the Government and the teachers of my country are acquainted with the meritorious work that the New Education Fellowship has developed on the European continent. Secondly, for a long period we have been able to appreciate the very important work of the Progressive Education Association in this country, having collaborated as much as possible to increase the professional and personal relations between the teachers of Mexico and the United States. Last, but not least, we are clearly aware of the enormous importance that education has for the present and future of our continent.

Dr. Ponton was positive in his assertion that the school would not be doing its duty in modern society if it did not concern itself actively with the problems which confront the world to-day; it was essential to have 'a new school for a new social order'.

Speaking on 'Education and Changes in England', Redvers Opie, representing the British Embassy in Washington, admitted at the outset that the War has retarded the pace of educational reform in England, but he declared that 'the Government have stated their determination to press on, when times are propitious, with the process of improvement, with the process of democratization in that best sense of making equality of opportunity more nearly universal'. Despite the regimentation of all phases of life imposed by war, Mr. Opie said the ideal of individual liberty and the principle of voluntary action have continued to play their part in English education. He urged as an immediate necessity the 'educative process' of discussing the problems that are likely to arise in post-war reconstruction.

'Canada in a World of Nations' was the theme of the address by B. K. Sandwell, Toronto editor. Mr. Sandwell described dramatically the two different cultures in the Dominion—those of the English-speaking Protestant and the French-Canadian Catholics—and pointed out that the very existence of these differences illustrated the contrast between what would be permitted under a totalitarian régime and what is considered normal under democracy. He believed, however, that the true benefits of the diversity of cultures will not be reaped until they are

interfused—until it becomes possible 'to unite, without unifying; to co-ordinate, without absorption; and to group, without confusing'.

On the same programme Dr. Otero, Minister of Education in Bolivia, described what he considered the educational basis of Inter-American relations. An intellectual unity of American countries he believed to be wholly feasible, but it would have to be approached, he thought, 'by means of good conduct'—by achieving a continental conscience through a cultural philosophy that would serve as a common denominator of all the countries. 'Each should search his own heart for understanding and should erase entirely the differences between our countries and the prejudices and conventional lies.'

Consciousness of World Community

That a consciousness of world community is being born out of the world's agony was the conclusion of Spencer Miller's address on *Education, Labour, and a World Society*. 'Both labour and education recognize', Mr. Miller declared, 'that the world is one and not twain, that freedom is indivisible, that work is universal, and that all mankind are brothers'. What is now necessary, he insisted, is the acceptance by the leaders of education and labour alike of their full moral and civic responsibilities for this new world community.

How to regenerate faith in education, how to restore confidence in the people on behalf of education—this was the present problem as Eduard C. Lindemann, of the New York School of Social Work, saw it. The chief antidote for pessimism is action, he said:

We educators must move closer to the technicians on the one hand and to the moralists on the other. The technicians will determine the methods we are to utilize in building a better world, and the moralists will tell us what ends and values are to be sought. Education includes both.

One of the high spots of the Ann Arbor Conference was the dinner meeting Friday evening. Even the absence of Zilliacus (hope for whose coming had been indulged in almost to the last) could not dampen the enthusiasm of the hundreds who sat down together in the Michigan Union. As toastmaster Harold Rugg

read cable messages from all over the world—from Beatrice Ensor, Fred Clark, Wyatt Rawson, Zilliacus. Delegates from Latin American countries were particularly in evidence and were repeatedly called upon for addresses and comments. With the magnificent help of Heberto Sein (one of the ablest translators and interpreters the N.E.F. or any other international conference ever had) English and Spanish were used almost interchangeably during the evening. Two of the most illuminating speeches were reminiscent of Cheltenham.¹ both Professor Boyd H. Bode of Ohio State University and Dr. Nieto Caballero of Columbia, South America, having had prominent places in the Cheltenham proceedings five years ago. 'We must have a programme' was the burden of Professor Bode's address.

The panel discussion by youths from the Dalton schools, New York City, and Pickering College, Ontario, Canada, led by Professor Goodwin Watson, was one of the most successful meetings of the Conference. 'We Face Tomorrow' was the subject of the programme, and these young people discussed frankly and understandingly their hopes and desires for 'tomorrow's world'.

One day was given over to a Parents' Programme, participated in by Giselle Shaw, of the National Council of Women, Argentina, Noemy da Silveira Rudolfer, of the University of Sao Paulo, Brazil, and William Blatz, of the University of Toronto, Canada. The panel discussion on the home and democracy had participants from Canada, Colombia, Cuba, Haiti, Honduras, Venezuela, and the United States.

Study Groups and Seminars

In accordance with the practice at former N.E.F. conferences, opportunities were made available for numerous smaller gatherings of persons interested in exploring more deeply into special topics. No less than 43 separate study groups were provided, dealing with such subjects as: Educational developments in South America; international relations; the philosophy of the new education; the family and the school; education and child development; teacher education; health education;

¹ 7th World Conference of N.E.F. held Cheltenham, England, 1936.

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the arts in education; visual education; community and informal educational programmes; workers' education; rural education; mental hygiene; the future of the independent (*i.e.* private or endowed) school. A 'workshop' group met daily to consider types of educational materials for increasing an understanding of Latin America in secondary schools of the United States and Canada. Lecture seminar groups under distinguished experts covered the culture, history, literature, arts, and music of Latin America, and a group of seven leaders from Brazil, Cuba, Chile, Colombia, Bolivia, and El Salvador, contributed to the seminar 'Toward the Understanding of Latin America'.

The pre-conference of Latin American delegates and leaders from the conference programme who had met at Cranbrook for several days prior to the Ann Arbor meeting resulted in a number of recommendations on better hemispheric relationships and methods of securing them. Committees on underlying philosophy, methods of collecting materials of information, interchange of teachers, relation

of education to economic life, Indian education, methods of teaching democracy, democratic practices within the school, status and selection of teachers, and permanent organization, made appropriate suggestions for future activities in these fields.

The Arts : Music and the Dance

One of the most characteristic emphases in New Education Fellowship conferences over many years has been on the fine arts. In planning for the Ann Arbor meeting Frederick L. Redefer and his committee made special efforts to carry on this tradition. They provided an international children's art exhibit which attracted considerable attention and has since gone on tour ; an Indian arts and crafts exhibit in which craftsmen in silver and rug and basket weaving did their work for visitors to see ; and, above all, a series of folk festivals and programmes of song and dance that included dance concerts by a Mexican modern dance group and music by the Mariachi Orchestra of Mexico City, folk materials from nationalities in the Detroit area, and American country dances.

Other features were the international teas every afternoon—a custom borrowed directly from the British N.E.F. ; a special exhibit of books on Latin America ; motion pictures ; and an extended field trip to Greenfield Village to view the historic buildings, crafts shops, stores and schools that Mr. Henry Ford has gathered together to illustrate the development of American community life.

A New Education for the Future

It had been planned to have two meetings on the last day of the conference, one to deal with 'Education in Europe after Peace Comes', the other to discuss 'The Future and the New Education Fellowship'. Actually the two meetings converged into one. In the first part of the meeting Professor Kilpatrick presented the report of a group of nineteen Europeans and Americans who had been steadily at work for more than a week—first at Cranbrook, and later at Ann Arbor. This was a committee, set up under a special grant for the purpose, on 'Educational Reconstruction after the War'. The report took the form of a short,

succinct 'Proposal to Men of Good Will'.¹ It asserted that reconstruction after this war will fail unless it is also re-education—education being understood as 'not schooling alone, but the influence on man of all that helps him to live decently, productively and happily with his fellows. To achieve this aim, man must create a free and better world which will provide for all, without distinction, opportunity for useful work, happy family life, fruitful leisure, and devotion.'

Reconstruction, it was stated in the proposal, must reach into every form of economic, political and social life. 'Without careful planning of the educational element in this reconstruction, Europe will again collapse . . . Only by reconstruction through education will youth be reassured against a new betrayal and their full energies enlisted in this cause.' The proposal laid down certain fundamental principles of educational reconstruction and applied them to educational enterprises, among them these : Break down the walls that stand between school and community ; uproot the idea that book knowledge in itself can be a guide in living ; make the schools institutions where the ideal of equality becomes a reality ; encourage and support everywhere and in every form the willingness of youth to serve ; recognize that youth everywhere faces a grave crisis ; protect teachers everywhere in their efforts to do better work ; work for the regeneration of faith.

As a practical step the proposal urged a strong action group, such as the Committee on Educational Reconstruction, to mobilize organizations, institutions and individuals. Among the functions of such a group would be to encourage Governmental authorities to include educational reconstruction in their post-war plans, to arrange for the establishment of centres for the training of workers needed to carry out such plans, and to secure the widest possible discussion of after-war problems.

In the final meeting the following motion was unanimously passed :

The members of the New Education Fellowship assembled in Ann Arbor, having learned during this meeting of the work of the group on Post-War

¹ Published in the *New Era*, November, 1941. Copies obtainable from New Education Fellowship, BCM/NEWED, London, W.C.1.

Reconstruction through Education, and having heard the report publicly made, do hereby express approval of the aims of the work as outlined and recommend the cordial co-operation of the New Education Fellowship in the work.

At this same meeting summaries of several of the study group reports were read—among them the reports on rural education and on the relation of education to economic life and

labour. After a discussion of ways and means in which the New Education Fellowship should function in the future, the Conference closed with an emphasis on Latin American and North American participation, immediate activity in education as basic both in defence and after-war programmes, and the necessity for long-distance planning by the executive committee and officers of the Fellowship.

The Training of Teachers

E. L. Herbert

Brunsdon Yapp

**Assistant Mistress, The
Manchester High School for Girls
Assistant Master, The
Manchester Grammar School**

THE questions which form the basis of this article were drawn up for discussion by a group of educationists which meets informally in Manchester. We, the authors, are both untrained teachers of considerable experience, bred in an atmosphere which was antagonistic to training, and our knowledge of the system of the training of teachers in existence in this country is therefore derived from outside. It comes in part from books, in part from conversation with friends who have been trained or are themselves engaged in training others, and chiefly from our contact with students who have done their teaching practice under us. To some of our questions we think we know the answers; on others we want advice. The former sort are mostly in the first nine, which are aimed primarily at those directly concerned with the training of teachers, and the others, on which we are less certain or quite ignorant, are directed chiefly at psychiatrists. Neither of us has any experience of elementary schools, and our criticisms are of the university training departments, which deal with the vast majority of those who will teach in secondary schools. We believe, however, that much of what we say applies with little modification to the elementary training colleges.

In order to simplify the issue we made certain assumptions. In the first place, we avoided any discussion of the meaning, aims, or methods of education, and assumed that however these may change, teaching will still

go on. We recognize that education is much more than teaching, but we believe that good teaching is an effective method of education, and we have dealt only with this one aspect of the subject.

Throughout our discussion we have had in mind the present school system, so that we have thought of a teacher facing a class of thirty children who are under some compulsion to be there. This is not to say that we think this system either permanent or desirable, but we feel that an improvement in the training of teachers need not wait on more basic reforms. We assumed that students will have an adequate technical knowledge of the subjects which they will teach, because we find that in general they are good enough in this respect. We do not subscribe to the doctrine that to teach John chemistry you need to know not chemistry but John, for we believe that you need to know as much as possible about both chemistry and John, but it is only with getting to know John that we are concerned. Lastly, we have dealt with the system of training as it is, and have not contemplated any large changes in general plan. We are aware that one possible answer to any criticism of what is left out of a course is: 'Give us an extra year and we can put in all you ask', but we have tried to criticize what does in fact go into the one training year which follows after a student has finished his ordinary university course. If our questions have any value, it is in making the best use of the present conditions; if we

were replanning the system from the beginning the questions would be much the same, but the emphasis on them, and in some cases the answers, would be different.

1. Our first question is : *Is training necessary ?* To this we answer ourselves : No. Many good teachers have been untrained, and it is obvious that many people do very well without it. So we ask

2. *Is training desirable ?* To this we answer Yes. We believe that however good a man may be at a job he is likely to be better if he is given guidance by his predecessors. If anything can be learned by experience—and all teachers would agree that they learn a great deal in that way—it should be possible to save the beginner much time and many mistakes by giving him something of what others already know. A training which did this would be helpful to all but the most wayward of geniuses. Accepting this, we ask

3. *Is the present system a good one ?* We realize that it is unfair to generalize about all the universities in the country when our immediate experience applies only to a few of them, but our feeling is that while some are better than others there is none which is really good. The product of the training departments as we receive him or her as our colleague does not bear the mark of a very profound or helpful preparation for his profession, and indeed is often not very different from the untrained person. Certainly after both have taught for a few years they cannot be told apart. Of the newly trained teacher we feel rather : 'We could have told you so' : given the methods which we know to be used in the training departments we could deduce the type of student which they would produce, and given the product of the departments we could infer very accurately the type of training which they give.

4. *Is the system likely to be good when the real selection of the students is not in the hands of the training departments ?* It seems obvious that in a rational world the test for entrance to a profession should be fitness for that profession, but in fact this criterion is only applied in a very minor degree. The motives for entering the teaching profession are doubtless mixed, but they are seldom particularly noble ones. So far

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as we can find by enquiry and observation the two dominant ones are, on the part of children of poorer parents, a wish for social and economic advancement, and more generally the fact that only by accepting the teachers' training grant can the student afford the cost of a university education. Other lesser motives are the ideas that teaching is a safe job, and that it holds the prospect of long holidays. In very few cases is there any conspicuous desire to teach because the work itself is attractive. The result is that the training departments, which are practically forced to admit a definite number of students in a year, have to choose a fairly high percentage of a group of people who have no special aptitude for teaching. They may be clever enough to identify all the sheep, but they have to accept a good many goats as well.

5. *Can the system be good when the training departments are out of touch with the schools ?* It is commonly said that lecturers on education talk and write as if they had never set foot in a classroom (and in some cases they seldom or never have). This complaint can be illustrated by two quotations. The first, from an article

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by Mr. J. A. Lauwerys¹, lecturer in the University of London Institute of Education, runs: 'If science teaching is to be really effective, each lesson must be conducted by the teacher as though he were leading a voyage of discovery into his subject.' This called forth a letter from Mr. F. A. Philbrick, assistant master at Rugby School, in which he said²: 'I suggest that this is not an entirely honest description of the teaching of anyone known to us.' We have no wish to decide the merits of this particular controversy, but we think it illustrates a state of affairs which is inimical to good training but which is bound to occur so long as lecturers in education do not teach. The student will be told that for his teaching to be effective he must do this or that, and when he joins the staff of a school he will find experienced teachers who laugh at the ideas he has acquired as quite out of touch with reality.

Some universities meet this difficulty by confining the work of their lecturers to the more theoretical side of the subject and handing over the student for his actual teaching practice to a

member of the staff of the school where he works. This we feel has much to commend it; it is certainly better than the commoner state of affairs in which the training departments make no contact with the teachers in the schools, but send tutors (who often seem to have no experience of teaching) to listen to the lessons which the students give. We have had experience of tutors who have never spoken to us, although their pupils were taking our classes, and occasionally of advice being given to the students which was quite contrary to our own instructions to them. We admit, of course, that the tutor's opinion may be better than ours, but such conflict of views can but be confusing to the student and bad for the forms which he takes. Something should be done to bring the theoretical ideas of lecturers on education into a shape in which they can be put into practice. So we ask

6. *Would it be a good thing if the staffs of training departments taught in schools, and if practising teachers taught in the departments?* We think that it certainly would, and we can conceive a number of ways in which it might be done. There might be occasional exchanges between the two for varying periods, so that a lecturer in education might go back and refresh his experience of school teaching for a term or a year or even for shorter periods. At the same time the teacher whom he replaced might give a course of lectures in the training department. This seems possible by a mutual arrangement between headmasters and professors of education, but its scope is limited. Neither schools nor universities would like losing a good man in exchange for someone unknown, and the schools would naturally object to frequent changes of teachers for a class. At the same time it would not make the lecturers into teachers, for they would essentially be doing an occasional job. It would seem to be useful chiefly for a few lecturers (and perhaps professors) whose strength lay in their theoretical knowledge of education, but who would be improved by periodical contact with the difficulties of the classroom. A better scheme would be one by which the lecturers in training departments were also on the staff of a school, some devoting most of their time to training students, others to teaching children,

¹ *School Science Review* (1935), 17, 165.

² *School Science Review* (1937), 19, 137.

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but all doing something of both. The obvious difficulty arising from the fact that the control of the universities and of the schools is in different hands, is not insuperable. In fact, most schools and all the modern universities are dependent at least in part on the local education authorities for monetary support. The Manchester College of Technology is a municipal concern, but it is also a part of the University. It would only be a matter of paper arrangement to make the training departments something similar; the head of the department might perhaps continue to be appointed by the university (which already has representatives of the local authorities on its governing body), and he might be at liberty to choose his assistants from the staffs of any schools aided or maintained by any of the authorities which make grants to the university. Payment of the teachers so appointed would be a matter for adjustment between the grant to the school and that to the university. Such teachers would naturally be those who might expect to receive special responsibility allowances, so that their pay would be somewhat higher than the standard scale. With the possible objection that a teacher removed from the school in this way for a half or two-thirds of his time would have to be replaced by another full-time teacher (which would be too expensive), we have little sympathy. Most schools would be better for a higher staffing ratio, and if it is as high as it should be, it would allow, in all but the smallest schools, for minor variations from year to year.

7. *In view of the shortage of time, should not more attention be given to the actual problems of teaching, at the expense of theories of education?* We quite recognize the importance of theor-

etical discussion about education and of its history, but these are largely made of stuff which any intelligent person can read for himself, and which many, in fact, do read. We find that in spite of our not having been trained, we can talk about these things as well as most of those who have been, and a good many other people who are not even teachers can do so likewise. Let the training departments suggest books which their pupils may read, but then let the intelligent students study them for themselves. They can well do so, and the unintelligent ones will get little profit from learned discussion anyway. For this side of the work an occasional tutorial class should be quite enough to smooth difficulties and direct the wayward.

8. *Should students be taught something of business method and organization?* Schools are usually most unbusinesslike places, partly because education committees and governing bodies have never realized that the expenditure of a small amount of money on equipment would save the time of the teachers and so make them less tired or angry in the classroom, but also largely because the teachers themselves are quite unaware of the sort of devices used in business to procure efficiency. A simple filing system, for example, would save much of the time spent at the beginning of every year in obtaining personal information about the newcomers to a form; a card index can record notes in a truly cumulative way, and so on. Closely related to this sort of thing is the necessity to see the common devices of the teacher in their true proportion. Marks, for instance, should be treated as a measurement, and attention should be paid to what exactly they measure and how satisfactorily they do it.

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Corrections should be considered as things which have no use unless it can be shown that they produce a definite result (and, in fact, as generally used they probably rarely teach anything). The writing of reports is another thing on which the student needs guidance; for whom are they written, and how should the desired effect be produced? It must be agreed that in all these things head masters and mistresses are great offenders, so that progress would be slow, but that is no reason for the training departments not doing what they can to accelerate an improvement. And even teachers of great experience are not above learning, so that our last question of the first part is

9. *Should not the training departments develop and circulate new ideas, so that they train those already teaching as well as students?* It would no doubt be difficult for this to happen on any large scale, but just as the universities are looked up to as the leaders of thought and experiment in almost all other branches of learning, so should they be in education. It is essential that their work should be such as to command respect and that they should publish it in a way which teachers can understand. We find in conversation with lecturers in education that they know the results of all sorts of experimental work of which we are ignorant, but for the most part when they write articles or lecture they do so in a vague and general way which shows small knowledge of the classroom.

That finishes with the general relationship of the training department to the profession; the remainder of our questions are requests for information on psychological matters on which nearly everyone is very ignorant and on which the experts may have divergent views. We do not expect final answers, but we suggest that our questions indicate the sort of problem to which a professor of education must have some sort of solution before he can begin to organize a satisfactory training department. The fundamental question is

10. *What qualities make a successful teacher?* and next, when we know these, comes

11. *How does one look for them?* The examination and the interview are, so far as we know, the only techniques used, and it seems possible that neither of these is adequate, nor are the two together. Even if they are, it is essential that they should be used in the best possible way. When the material has been selected,

12. *How should the training departments develop the qualities and aptitudes which make a good teacher?* and

13. *How should they seek to remove the disabilities and maladjustments that make a bad one?* In particular this raises the question

14. *Should teachers be analysed?*

15. *What sort of psychology is of practical use to teachers?* There seem to be several dangers which may have to be faced. The old type of academic psychology, which is still taught in places, is of small use and doubtful validity, but on the other hand a blind and uncritical acceptance of the analytical viewpoint may lead to unscientific teaching in which the works of Freud are regarded with biblical veneration just as were those of Aristotle or Galen in the Middle Ages. Some selection has to be made in a difficult and controversial subject; it has to be put in a form which makes it useful to a particular profession; and it has to be presented to adolescents, many of whom will have lived sheltered lives and be unprepared for the public discussion of private and intimate things. Unless the right stuff is found and unless it is rightly taught, the effect of psychology on the student may be negligible or even perhaps harmful.

16. *How do children learn?* Something is known of this, but not enough, and a great deal more needs to be found out before a teacher can be properly equipped. Good teachers know by experience the sort of teaching which suits forms of different ages and intelligence quotients, but many of them realize only

dimly that different methods are necessary with different individuals. Some schematization of ways of learning and types of teaching appropriate to them would be very helpful.

17. *How should the teacher try to deal with faults in the pupil?* Behaviour which is persistently anti-social is properly the province of the child guidance clinic, and the teacher's part here need be little more than approximate diagnosis and sympathetic understanding of the treatment; but there are many types of behaviour which are not bad in themselves but which are troublesome and cannot be tolerated in the classroom. Talking, for instance, essential at times, makes the formal lesson impossible. Are things like this best dealt with by disciplinary action in the narrow sense, or by emotional or rational appeal? Here the training departments have to remember that the teacher is not and never can be

concerned with the offending individual alone, but with the whole school. This brings us to our last question—

18. *How can the teacher be fair to the individual while teaching a class?* The qualities required to achieve this will have been considered under question 10 above, for, as we said at the beginning, we are concerned with the present type of school in which group instruction is the normal thing. It is fairly safe to say that teachers who are consistently fair to every individual end by getting such bad discipline that they are fair to none, while those who concentrate on teaching the class are very unfair to some individuals. There is a middle way which most of us try to follow, but it is difficult and we would welcome advice from any quarter. If this problem could be solved we think that the problem of the training of teachers would almost be solved with it.

Why Children Play

D. W. Winnicott

WHY do children play? Here are some of the reasons, obvious, but perhaps worth reviewing.

A. Pleasure

Most people would say that children play because they like doing so, and this is undeniable. Children enjoy all physical and emotional play experiences. We can increase the range of both kinds of their experiences by providing materials and ideas, but it seems to be better to provide too little rather than too much of their commodities, since children are able to find objects and invent games very easily, and enjoy doing so.

B. To express aggression

It is commonly said that children 'work off hate and aggression' in play, as if aggression were some bad substance that could be got rid of. This is partly true, because pent-up hate can feel to a child like a bad stuff inside himself. But it is more important to state this same thing by saying that the child values finding that he can express hate or aggressive urges in a known environment, without the

Director of the Child Department, Institute of Psycho-Analysis

return of hate and violence on to himself. A good environment, the child would say, should be able to tolerate aggressive feelings if they are expressed in more or less acceptable form.

Aggression can be pleasurable, but it inevitably carries with it real or imagined hurting of someone, so that the child cannot avoid having to deal with this complication. To some extent he deals with it at source by accepting the discipline of expressing his feeling in play time, and not just when angry. Another way is for him to use aggression in activity that has ultimate constructive aim. But he only gradually achieves these things. It is our part to see that we do not ignore the social contribution the child makes by expressing his aggressive feelings in play instead of at the moment of rage. We may not like being hated or hurt but we must not ignore the love that underlies any self-discipline in regard to angry impulses.

C. To master anxiety

Whereas it is easy to see that children play for pleasure, it is much more difficult for people to see that children play to master anxiety, or

to master ideas that lead to anxiety if they are not in control.

Anxiety is always one factor in a child's play, and often it is a major factor. Threat of excess of anxiety leads to compulsive play, or to repetitive play, or to an exaggerated seeking for the pleasures that belong to play; and if anxiety is too great, play breaks down into pure exploitation of sensual gratification.

This is not the place to prove the thesis that anxiety underlies children's play. The practical result, however, is important. For in so far as children only play for pleasure they can be asked to give it up where it is inconvenient socially; whereas in so far as play deals with anxiety we cannot keep children from play without causing distress, actual anxiety, or new defences against anxiety (such as masturbation or day-dreaming).

D. To gain experience

Play is a big part of life for the child. Internal as well as external experiences are rich for the adult, but for the child the riches are chiefly in play and fantasy. Just as the personalities of adults develop through their experiences, so do children develop through their own play, and through the play inventions of other children and of adults. By enriching themselves children gradually enlarge their capacity to see the richness of the externally real world.

Grown-ups contribute here by recognizing the big place of play, and by teaching traditional games without cramping or corrupting the children's own inventiveness.

E. To make social contacts

Children at first play alone, or with mother; other children are not immediately in demand as neighbours. It is largely through play, in which the other children are fitted into pre-conceived roles, that a child begins to allow these others to mean something to him.¹ Just as adults make friends and enemies easily at work, whereas they may sit in a boarding-house for years and do no more than wonder why no one seems to want them, so do children

make friends and enemies during play, while they do not easily make friends apart from play. Play organizes emotional relationships and so enables social contacts to develop.

F. Integration of personality

Play and the use of the art forms and religious practice tend in various, but allied, ways towards a unification and general integration of the personality. For instance, play can easily be seen to link the individual's relation to internal reality with his relation to external reality.

In another way of looking at this highly complex matter, it is in play that the child links ideas with bodily function. It would be profitable, in this connection, to examine masturbation or other sensual exploitation with the conscious and unconscious fantasy that belongs to it, and to compare this with play, in which conscious and unconscious ideas hold sway, the related bodily activity being either lost or else harnessed to the play content.

It is when one comes across a case of a child whose compulsive masturbation is *apparently* free of fantasy, or on the other hand a child whose compulsive day-dreaming is *apparently* free from either localized or general bodily excitement, that we see most clearly the healthy tendency that there is in play which relates the two aspects of life to each other. Play is the alternative to sensuality in the child's effort to keep whole. No doubt sensuality becomes compulsive and play becomes impossible when anxiety is relatively great.

Similarly, it is when one meets with a child whose relation to his inner reality and to external reality are unjoined, one whose personality is seriously divided in this respect, that we see most clearly how normal playing (like the remembering and telling of dreams) is one of the things that tend towards integration of personality.

G. Communication with people

In a special case of the above (F) a child in play may be trying to let us know him, to display himself inside as well as outside to chosen people in his environment. In ordinary life this becomes changed into its opposite, for play, like speech, can be said to be given us

¹ See *Play in the Nursery School*, D. E. May, *New Era*, July-August, 1937. *Co-operation in Infancy*, Mary Maw, *New Era*, December, 1940.

to hide our thoughts, if it is the deeper thoughts that we mean.

In psycho-analysis of little children, this desire to communicate through play is used in place of the adult's speaking. The three-year-old child often has so great a belief in our capacity to understand him that the psycho-analyst has great difficulty in living up to what the child at first assumes he can do. Great bitterness can follow the child's disillusionment in this respect, and there could be no greater stimulus to the analyst in his search for deeper understanding than the child's distress at his failure.

Older children are comparatively disillusioned in this respect, and it is no great shock to them to be misunderstood, or even to find that they can deceive and that education is largely education in deception, starting with saying 'Ta' apart from meaning it, and looking clean irrespective of the inward state. However, all children remain to a less or greater degree capable of regaining the belief in being understood, and in their play we can always find the gateway to the unconscious and the native honesty which in life so curiously starts in full bloom and then unripens to the bud.

Book Reviews

Aeschylus and Athens. By Professor George Thomson. (Lawrence and Wishart. 1 guinea.)

This is not a conventional study on a literary topic, but something more ample and important. True, Thomson's first object is to reinterpret the plays of Aeschylus, but to do this satisfactorily he has to describe the ways of life and the artistic traditions of a civilization which continues to fascinate modern men. He surveys the rise of the society of city-states of Ancient Greece out of a medley of barbaric tribes, discusses the evolution of their political systems, and traces the development of their religious ideas from crude magic and ritual to dignified tragedy and polished philosophy.

I confess to a certain astonishment at my temerity in writing about such a book, since I am, of course, quite incompetent to pass judgment on Thomson's scholarship and on the quality of his literary criticism. I am encouraged, however, by the feeling that he was not writing specially for Greek scholars, nor even for the *gens literata*, but for all those who, like myself, desire to understand more fully the processes which are changing modern society. As for his soundness I am content to believe that his views can be backed by arguments at least as sound as those of his critics: Thomson is Professor of Greek in the University of Birmingham, and I know that good judges admire his editions of the *Oresteia* and of the *Prometheus Bound*.

In the first part of his book he considers tribal society—totemism, exogamy, the idea of property—and here, where information on Greek ways is meagre, he reinforces his argument by drawing on the data of modern anthropology, for instance, on the vast mass of material which research workers have accumulated in their studies on the Australian aborigines. He handles such stuff with ease, skill and admirable judgment: it is exciting to observe how this treatment illuminates and orders material usually left obscure and chaotic, and delightful to meet a classicist who displays such breadth of view

and so much understanding of modern thought. Thomson shows how primitive magic and ritual provided the mould in which were formed the mythological figures—the Moira, the Erinyes, Dike, Zeus,—in which the Greeks persistently clothed their deepest feelings about man and his relation to nature.

The second part, 'From Tribe to State', is devoted chiefly to the study of political forms—monarchy, aristocracy, tyranny—and relates the development of poetry and science to the early history of the class struggle. Part Three, on the Origin of Drama, resumes from Part One the history of primitive initiation, which is then applied to the growth of those mystical religions—the cult of Dionysus and Orphism—which have had so much influence on Christianity. In Part Four these threads are all drawn together for the interpretation of the plays of Aeschylus and the book closes with two intensely interesting chapters called 'After Aeschylus' (further development of Athenian democracy, Sophocles, Euripides, etc.), and 'Pity and Fear' (Aristotle's views, primitive theory of possession, religious hysteria at Eleusis, social function of *kátharsis*, etc.).

One's first feeling on reading all this is perhaps astonishment that the field of classical scholarship, already so well tilled for so many centuries, can still bear so rich and vigorous a crop. This, without doubt, is due to the fact that Thomson's method is a new one—he accepts the theory of historical materialism. Professor Benjamin Farrington, in his *Science and Politics in the Ancient World* has already exhibited some of the remarkable results that can be obtained by this approach. Of course, it may repel some readers. No doubt those whose tastes have been formed in the more ethereal and remote fastnesses of the traditional liberal school (the ivory tower school—literature as escape from life's turmoil), will wonder whether, for instance, one is justified in saying of the *Oedipus* of Sophocles that 'it is a symbol of the deep-seated perplexity engendered in men's minds by the unforeseen and incomprehensible transformation of a social order designed to establish

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liberty and equality into an instrument for the destruction of liberty and equality'. They will wonder whether artists are, in fact, so sensitive to social conflicts and whether they do sublimate them in their art. For my part, though I feel certain that many artists do try to escape, I feel just as certain that Thomson's way of handling these questions helps one to understand the social rôle of drama and heightens one's appreciation of it.

For us, as teachers, the chief importance of an outlook like Thomson's lies in the contribution it makes to our understanding of the possible rôle of the classics in education. We know why Arnold wanted to use them as the chief ingredient in his educational diet : the men he wanted to produce were not unlike the Greek gentlemen he admired. We now realize that such men are incompetent to direct an industrial civilization, incapable of understanding the forces that work within it and insensitive to democratic ideals. In Thorstein Veblen's words we doubt whether there is any value in the 'habitual contemplation of the anthropomorphism, clannishness and leisured self complacency of the gentlemen of an early day, or in familiarity with the animistic superstitions and the exuberant truculence of the Homeric heroes'. But revitalized by the new outlook it seems that, after all, the classics may still have a part to play in modern education by enriching our understanding of the way in which societies develop and of the forces which lead to their growth or decay. As Thomson says, 'those who as citizens are averse or indifferent to contemporary social changes will seek in the civilization of Ancient Greece something stable and absolutely valuable, which will both reflect and fortify their attitude of acquiescence. Others, who cannot acquiesce, will study the history of Greece as a process of continuous change, which, if it can be made to reveal its underlying laws, will help us to understand and so direct the forces making for change in the society of to-day.' Certainly those of us who hope to see our social order transformed into one better adapted to our needs, aspirations and powers will find *Aeschylus and Athens*, as I have, one of the most exciting and illuminating books they have ever read.

J. A. L.

The Young Adult in South Wales. By A. J. Lush. (University of Wales Press. 1/-.)

The County Badge or the Fourfold Achievement. (Oxford University Press. 6d.)

Before the war the plight of large numbers of young people in this country was serious. Mr. Lush's masterly inquiry sets out in detail the circumstances and problems of some 500 young men of 18-25, who were found in the queues of Employment Exchanges in South Wales in 1937-39. It is an account which should be studied by all who care for young people, or indeed for the future of this country. The facts are recorded soberly, but with sympathy and insight. Their meaning in terms of human defeat is only too clear.

The great majority of these young men had only received elementary education. At least 70 per cent. had had no training for a trade or a profession. Very few had entered 'beneficial employment' at 14. More than half had been unemployed for 24 months or more in the three years before the inquiry. Many of them were of unsound physique.

In view of all this, their psychological condition as described by Mr. Lush seems to follow naturally. Their hopelessness showed itself perhaps most significantly in their general indifference to politics : only 3 per cent. belonged to any political party or organization. There was very little in either their schooling or their experience of life to encourage a sense of citizenship.

It is true that these young men came from a particularly unfortunate area. But they represented only the extreme form of the general problem of young people. Far outside the ranks of the unemployed, young people before the war were failing to get a grip on life or to find a purpose in living.

The war has to some extent shelved the problem. But, when it is over, we shall face the same situations again, unless we remove the causes that brought them about. We have to be fundamental and radical.

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One welcomes the appearance, at last, of an authoritative and convenient statement of what the scheme is. It was becoming tiresome to have nothing to go on but a collection of newspaper cuttings, by which one had tried to keep track of a rather mystifying progressive revelation.

The programme of activity is in many respects excellent—as far as it goes. Provided youngsters are properly fed, physical activities of the kinds proposed can be very useful. The expedition, project and service achievements are all good in their not entirely original way. But does the scheme as a whole deserve all the attention that has been engineered for it? This booklet does not answer the objections which have been raised to it. Leaving aside criticisms of detail, the scheme seems to me faulty in three main respects: its inadequate psychology of adolescence, the false philosophy of 'manliness' implicit in it, and the extravagant educational claims made for it. The ideal county badger and the ideal citizen of a democracy are not identical. In particular the democratic citizen requires the capacity to formulate and criticize purposes. As the booklet itself admits, the qualities which this scheme of training hopes to produce are 'neutral in the sense that those who possess them may apply them to good or evil purposes'. Surely, in addition to promoting intelligence, the kind of

training we desire should have some bias in the direction of the good.

The danger of the County Badge scheme is that it deals with symptoms, not with causes. The lack of grit and purpose in young people is the outcome of a defective social order. To provide artificial incentives and an intensive physical life is not to tackle the causes, but do distract attention from them.

V. O.

Functional Arithmetic through Citizenship, Book Four : One and All, by John Trevelyan and John Morley. (Longmans, 1/9.)

This might equally well be called 'Citizenship through Functional Arithmetic'. As an alternative to the wickedly dull computations on stocks and shares and the like which disfigure the majority of arithmetic books, this book may be safely recommended, both for its amusing and attractive illustrations and layout and for the importance of the topics handled, *e.g.* The Budget, Houses, Health, School and College. Training in citizenship must not neglect the qualitative aspect. Arithmetic must not neglect the social aspect.

G. P. M.

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THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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EQUALITY OF ACCESS TO EDUCATION

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The Distribution of Educational Opportunities in New Zealand

H. E. Field. *I.E. staff.*

Professor of Education, Canterbury
University College, Christchurch

NEW ZEALAND has long been acclaimed as a country which has achieved equality of educational opportunity. Examination shows that this reputation is justified in a substantial measure. For any country, educational inequalities tend to occur between wealthy and poor districts, between town and country, between socio-economic or racial groups and between tax-maintained and private schools.

Almost the whole of public educational expenditure in New Zealand is met by the central government. Discrimination has not been shown in favour of the more prosperous districts in the matter of buildings and equipment, while the system of promoting teachers ensures a reasonably equitable distribution. In the country districts, with small and scattered populations, it is not easy to provide good educational facilities easy of access to all, and country children are probably at some disadvantage as compared with their urban contemporaries. However, we have a very elaborate network of organizations to reduce

the disabilities usually associated with rural education. Special privileges are accorded to teachers undertaking country services; in fact a period of such service is a condition of promotion in the primary (elementary) service. Consolidated schools with motor transport facilities have been provided in many districts so that children may have the advantage of attending a school of substantial size. There is also a fairly liberal provision in the matter of district (rural) high schools. A boarding allowance of 7s. 6d. per week is granted by the Government towards the maintenance of children compelled to board away from home in order to attend school. An efficient correspondence school provides education by post, supplemented by broadcasts and occasional home visits, at the expense of the state for those unable to attend primary or secondary schools whether it be for reasons of distance or reasons of health. The majority of children receiving non-state primary education attend Roman Catholic schools and do so primarily for religious reasons.

Post-primary education is free though not compulsory. Any child of 14 or at the time of leaving school irrespective of the standard reached, may attend a technical school without fee. Secondary (grammar) schools may be entered without fee by all who have completed the primary course. In practice entrants have virtually a free choice of the courses offered. There are several combined secondary and technical schools. In some of the less populous areas there are district high schools. Intermediate schools which normally take children in Forms I and II usually provide a third-year course for those who prefer to remain rather than to go to a secondary institution. There are also (mainly in the four principal cities) a number of endowed or registered private schools. Close on 60 per cent. of children leaving primary schools proceed to full time post-primary schools. Private schools receive about one-seventh of the total. About two-fifths go to secondary (grammar) schools, about one-quarter to technical schools, the remainder to the combined and district high schools. Information is rather scanty concerning those who leave the primary school direct for work. A recent analysis by H. C. McQueen shows that one-half of the boys and two-fifths of the girls in this category have failed in one or more classes. The average age of leaving primary school is about a year older than for the group going to secondary school. Studies of small sample groups show a proportion of cases in which distaste for school is marked. A considerable number come from homes in the lower income groups. In one sample, one-fifth of the cases were found to be children of widows. It is noticeable that the non-state schools draw a goodly portion of their pupils from the more prosperous economic groups. In at least one centre such schools have offered scholarships (equivalent to tuition fees) and half-scholarships which have resulted in keen competition for places, and to some extent there is a tendency for 'creaming' to operate against the State institutions. However, the prestige of several of the state schools stands very high and there is no evidence that non-state schools as such are generally regarded as preferable to the state institutions. Technical schools tend to draw

from the less prosperous sections more than do the secondary schools. The average stay at secondary schools is about $2\frac{3}{4}$ years and at technical schools $2\frac{1}{4}$ years. Considerably less than half the pupils approach the standard required for entering the university; C. E. Beeby found that less than one-sixteenth of those beginning a post-primary school course actually entered the university.

There are a few university scholarships carrying an emolument sufficient to pay a fair part of the student's maintenance. For non-scholarship winners who attend a secondary school for a year after passing University Entrance, bursaries are available. The bursary is enough to cover university tuition fees in arts but is not sufficient to meet the whole cost of the usual science course. The courses in dentistry and medicine are more expensive still.

Students who enter the Teachers' Training College receive a substantial emolument and may have their university tuition fees paid. Students in arts, law and commerce may hold paid positions since lectures in most subjects are held after 4 p.m. Courses in science, engineering, dentistry and medicine normally necessitate full-time attendance. Particularly in the case of medicine, but also in engineering, dentistry and science the financial condition of parents plays a large part in determining the capacity of students to enter upon these courses.

In law, the Maori child has equal rights with his Pakeha brother. About half the Maori children attend ordinary schools. The remainder go to native schools which have curricula specially adapted to meet Maori needs. In some parts of the country racial discrimination is not altogether absent. Its main effect is to limit the range of vocational choices of the Maori child. While there are brilliant exceptions, it is still true on the average that Maori children receive less educationally than do white children. This is due largely to attitudes which prevail in certain Maori communities. In recent years rapid improvements have been made in the native schools and effective steps are being taken to win a greater measure of co-operation.

New Zealand has already achieved a fair measure of equality in educational opportunity.

In several directions, however, there is scope for further improvement. For example, a strong case can be made for subsistence allowances to parents in the lowest income groups to help them to send their children to post-primary schools. The same argument applies in the case of suitable young people wishing to proceed to certain university courses. There is need also for better provision for directing pupils to the schools and courses which are consistent with their capacities and interests. Although vocational guidance has been recognized officially, much remains to be done in building up habits of periodic consulta-

tion between teachers and parents. There is much remaining to be done also in the matter of providing individualized direction and instruction for children who stand in special need. The more subtle handicaps associated with limited cultural facilities in the home are not compensated for very satisfactorily—in fact some needs of this kind are scarcely realized.

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Equality of Educational Opportunity in Australia

F. W. Mitchell

Lecturer at the Adelaide Teachers' College,
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AUSTRALIAN education presents a peculiar paradox in so far as it has developed, in its attempts to serve the individual, a series of centralized departments whose uniformity of administration tends to stifle individuality. These are offset by a system of private schools modelled on the English public schools, but conditions are such that they do not, in general, enjoy such relative independence or freedom, diversity or individuality as their English counterparts. The reasons underlying these developments reside not unnaturally in the distinctive nature of the growth of the Australian community itself, and to assess the values and limitations of Australian education it is necessary to examine the geographic and historical setting of Australian life.

The early settlers, mostly of British origin, found water, fertile land, and profitable employment in the regions along and relatively close to the coast, particularly in the east and south. Further inland, water is scarce, rivers are few, and the soil relatively inhospitable, so that, unlike America and Canada, there are few big cities away from the coast. The early centres of colonization have thus retained their

importance as focal points for development, and the Australian community is characterized by the congregation of nearly one half of its total population in the six State capital cities. This somewhat unique state of affairs was aggravated from the beginning by the development of large scale primary industries, especially in the form of sheep and cattle stations, and it has become even more marked in recent years by the location of many new secondary industries close to the main centres of population.

The relative smallness and isolation of the country communities, difficulties of transport and communications naturally resulted in the centralization of commercial and cultural agencies in the capital cities, and all of these factors contributed to the benefits of those living in the cities to the serious disadvantage of those in the sparsely settled areas.

It was impossible to expect local agencies to meet more than a fraction of their developing needs, so education, in common with most other social services, became the responsibility of each colony, and so there arose in each State separate school systems, entirely financed and administered by the several State Governments,

together with some private schools sponsored by various religious denominations.

To offset the disabilities of the outlying centres the early administrators adopted a policy of uniform provision, the purpose of which was to ensure as far as possible that country children should be guaranteed facilities equivalent to if not the same as those provided in the cities. The services of a recognized teacher, grants to meet the cost of hiring or building suitable premises, and the provision of standard equipment were guaranteed at any place, no matter how remote, where an average attendance of more than six children and suitable accommodation could be established.

Small schools, rented buildings, trained teachers with the status of civil servants, travelling advisers, and occasionally departmental inspectors are thus to be found in remote and almost isolated centres far beyond the reach of railways, and, until recently, even beyond the reach of motor cars.

This policy of direct aid to outback communities has recently been extended in all States by means of travelling grants to children who have to travel more than five miles to the nearest school. In 1937-38 one State spent £11,917 and another spent £10,517 on conveyance allowances in this way.

Further assistance has also been given to smaller groups and individual families isolated even beyond the existing widespread provision by the creation of correspondence schools in every State. Lessons are forwarded and are returned on completion by the children on a fortnightly schedule. Each child has his own 'class teacher' whom he is encouraged to regard as a counsellor and friend, as well as his educational guide. The services of parents are enlisted, home and local activities are encouraged, and courses have been developed to cover the first two years of secondary education. Correspondence school teachers exercise every care to provide for these isolated children, and even go so far as to establish personal contacts during their vacations.

Prominence is also given to educational broadcasts to outback children, and wireless lessons are becoming a valuable agency for bringing them in closer contact with the best that is available.

Other advantages arising from the centralized administration in each State are that every school has access to such facilities as Departmental Film Libraries and educational stores, and can apply for financial aid in the purchase of extra equipment or for free books for its poorer children. A uniform curriculum and standards of achievement for all stages is also designed to reduce possible disabilities should a child transfer from one part of a State to another. To teachers is guaranteed security of tenure, and to schools continuity of activity even though transfers and promotions result in occasional setbacks.

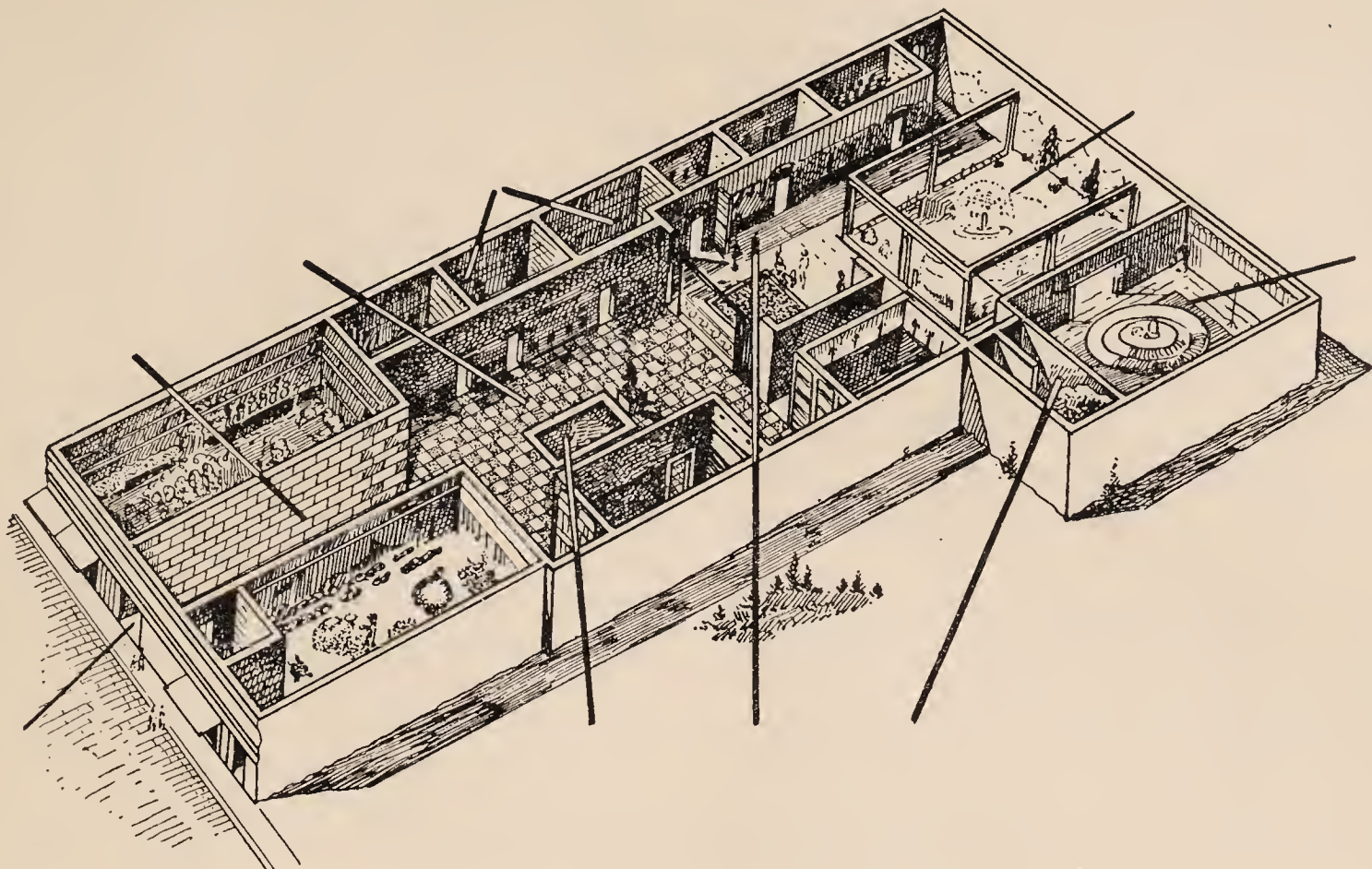
It can therefore be seen that no Australian child is debarred from receiving some kind of organized education, and that there is a vigorous attempt to give every child a sound basic education up to the end of the primary school course at least.

These are no mean achievements in a country so young, so vast, and so sparsely populated and they have been the source of some pride and even of complacency to Australians. But the lack of agencies for free criticism and the absorption of administrators in the tasks before them have resulted in a certain blindness to the deficiencies of the Australian system. The social and geographic isolation of the country has militated against the ingression of new ideas and the absence of bases for comparison has resulted in the frequent assertion that¹ 'our system of education, primary and post-primary, is fundamentally sound and modern and well suited to our requirements.'

Of recent years, however, this attitude of self-satisfaction has given way to one of self-examination and self-criticism, the origins of which are in no small measure due to the N.E.F. Conference held here in 1936 and to the Carnegie Fellowship and Travelling Grants. Slowly but increasingly Australian educators are becoming aware of the deficiencies of their system, and are seeking with variable vigour and success to meet its inadequacies, although there are many who would deny the existence of widespread inequalities.

It was not until recently, for example, that

¹ I. L. Kandel, *Types of Administration*, University of Melbourne Press, page 14.



Above is a plan of a Roman house. Fill in, in their right places, the following names and put the English translation of the Latin word in brackets after it.

Impluvium (.....)

Ostium (.....)

Triclinium (.....)

Cubicula (.....)

Vestibulum (.....)

Culina (.....)

Peristylum (.....)

Atrium (.....)

Tablinum (.....)

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any real concern was expressed regarding the fact that the responsibility for supplementing the official provision in state schools falls upon the local head teacher and his parents' committee. The supply of such material as library books, sports material, a school cinema or radio, school decorations, and even material for arts and craft work has depended upon the energy and capacity of the teachers and their committees. This has resulted in relatively wide differences between school and school, and has thrown a burden upon enthusiastic teachers, which is sometimes repeated when they are transferred to another poorly equipped school.

A further basis for inequality arises from the uneven and relatively unguided development of secondary education. Difficulties of transport and variations in local economic standards and the high relative cost of providing equipment and courses have all contributed towards the uneven growth of secondary schools in the country. These difficulties are being met by the provision of more scholarships for further education and a gradual development of consolidated or area schools. The task of providing widespread secondary education has thus only really begun, and the relative uniformity of provision for primary education is in striking contrast with the inequality of provision for further education.

The development of numerous private schools alongside but distinct from the state schools has resulted in further inequalities which have only recently been receiving some of the attention they deserve. Practically all of these schools are independent of the state system and receive no grants-in-aid. They are therefore almost solely dependent upon private funds, endowments, and fees, with consequent wide diversities in their financial backgrounds. Free places are practically non-existent and scholarships are few, so that the private schools tend to serve only the children from the higher income groups. In this respect the Catholic schools offer a distinct contrast by attempting to serve all classes in various localities with low fees, although the average provision they can supply is thereby reduced. Amongst the private schools themselves there consequently exists a wide diversity of provision, especially in respect

of buildings, grounds, equipment, and staffing. In many cases, however, the private schools are better provided than the corresponding state schools, and this inequality has resulted in a steady increase in the numbers attending them.

In 1921 the number of children attending state schools was nearly four-and-a-half times the number attending private schools for the whole of Australia. In 1933 the number was only four times as great, and in 1937 there were only three-and-a-half children in a state school for every child in a private school.

A recent investigation¹ has shown, furthermore, that the proportion of children staying on after the age of 16 is much higher in private schools than in the state secondary schools. The same investigation also showed that most of the university entrance bursaries went to candidates from the private schools. An examination of the history of university graduates revealed the even greater variations in favour of the private schools. These facts show, in no uncertain manner, that the facilities of higher education are by no means available equally to all, and that education beyond the age of 16, in Australia, is seriously weighted in favour of those who can afford to pay for it. The situation is further aggravated by the recent establishment, in at least one State, of fees for students over 16 attending state high schools, and these charges, although small, place further obstacles in the way of children from the middle and lower income groups.

Attempts are being made to increase the number of university entrance scholarships, and to make a definite number available to the lower income groups, but these are only part solutions of the underlying inequalities.

Nor is Australia wholly freed from the social distinctions arising from the two types of school. Whilst differences of speech and conduct and educational standard are not especially marked, there is the danger 'that more prestige will be attached to the "school tie" than to the education given'.²

A further source of inequality which has hitherto received little attention in Australia

¹ J. A. La Nauze, in *Australian Educational Studies* (Second Series), University of Melbourne Press.

² I. L. Kandel, *op. cit.*, page 77.

arises from the diverse conditions obtaining in each individual State. The wealth or the financial disabilities of each State directly influence the educational provision it can afford, and there have arisen differences between State and State which are by no means inconsiderable. The expenditure per head of population, for example, varied in 1937 from £1 19s. 7d in Queensland to £1 15s. in South Australia, and the average cost of education per child ranged from £17 11s. in New South Wales to £14 13s. in Tasmania.

Corresponding variations are to be found in the differing costs of primary, secondary, and technical education, to say nothing of the wide variations that exist in regard to the salaries of teachers, the supply of books, and equipment and in curriculum requirements.

Regular conferences between the Directors of Education and the Ministers of Education help to reduce these differences, but until the Federal Government takes an interest in education corresponding to that revealed in America by the 1938 White House Report,¹ it is doubtful whether these inter-State inequalities will be reconciled.

Despite the manifold difficulties and the growing revelation of its existing deficiencies, there is welcome evidence that Australia is earnestly tackling its educational problems, and if these are tackled with the zeal and efficiency that has characterized Australian education in the past, there is every hope for a future rich in accomplishment.

¹ *Report of the Advisory Committee on Education, 1938.*

Equality of Opportunity in Soviet Education

M. M. Wiles

'Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to Education.

This right is ensured by universal compulsory elementary education and by a system of State scholarships for the overwhelming majority of students in higher schools, by instruction in schools in the native language, and by the organization in factories, State farms, machine tractor stations, and collective farms of free industrial, technical, and agricultural education for the working people.'

Article 121 of the Soviet Constitution.

EQUALITY of opportunity is a time-honoured phrase which we accept without always realizing its far-reaching implications and the many obstacles blocking its achievement.

In assessing how far this equality of opportunity exists in a particular society, we must answer many questions. Are there special types of school to which parents can, by reason of wealth or social influence, send their children? Is there a system of fees which at any stage, from nursery to university, makes parental income a decisive factor in determining a child's future? Does extreme poverty force any parent to refuse even free secondary education for his children so that they can start earning as soon as possible? Are the school medical services, and the health services and the provision of school meals, adequate to ensure

to every child the fullest physical and mental development of which he is capable? Is secondary education available to every child? Is university accommodation sufficient, and are university scholarships on a generous enough scale to provide for those able students who refuse to be a financial burden on their parents? Are all educational institutions open on equal terms to men and women? Is there a racial or colour bar?

How does the U.S.S.R. face these tests?

The first question is easily disposed of, for there are in Russia no privately maintained schools, good or bad. All children attend the state schools. Sex inequality is also absent. From crèche to college all institutions are fully co-educational. At no point, in class, camp, or club, are boys and girls separated. Since

women are admitted on equal terms with men to all trades and professions, technical and professional training in trade schools and universities is necessarily open to both sexes. In the universities women have taken full advantage of this; very nearly half the students are women; in the law faculty 42 per cent. of the students are women; in teaching 47 per cent.; in medicine 68 per cent.; in every profession women can and do reach the top of the tree.

What of our other tests of equality of opportunity? Clearly the most important years are the formative years of early childhood. Inequality of income, of course, exists, though its range is less than elsewhere. In spite of the enormous housing programme carried out, the huge leeway to be made up and the rapid growth of city populations have prevented the elimination of overcrowding. Both these factors must handicap the child suffering from them; but the development of social services has done much to eliminate them. Free medical advice and treatment is available from birth. An extensive network of crèches and nurseries covers the majority of children up to the age of three. So far it has not been possible to cover all children of this age-group; the gap is largely filled by the initiative of parental groups in factory, farm, and flat, who set about providing these facilities for their children. Two more years of peace would have made this network complete. The fact that these institutions employ a full-time doctor and nurse and provide free treatment and regular meals means that the children in them have the chance of healthy mental and physical development.

The same is true of the next stage in the health and educational services, the nursery and infant schools for the 3-7 age-group. The aim of making these schools universal is within a few years of achievement, the temporary gaps being filled by the spontaneous activities of local organizations, so that provision is now made for almost all children in this age-group.

At the age of 7 or 8 all children enter the secondary school (there is no sharp distinction, as in England, between elementary and secondary education), and remain to at least

the age of 15. Up to this point there is no differentiation of curriculum or type of school, except that in country districts the presentation of some subjects is given an agricultural turn. There are no school fees; meals are provided either free or for a nominal charge, during term and holiday alike; the provision of holiday camps has been widely developed, so that in summer most town children spend a month or six weeks in the country. Under war conditions the existence of these permanent camps has greatly simplified the evacuation of children.

Teachers in the U.S.S.R., as elsewhere, are faced with the 'bad home' and 'bad parent' problem. How is it dealt with? The close integration of the school with the social life around it is an important factor here. Active parents' associations take a direct interest in the schools; they attend talks by the teachers on school problems, and have joint discussions on home and out-of-school life. The securing of a satisfactory home environment becomes a joint responsibility of parent and teacher; the teachers, whose actual teaching hours are short, visit children's homes more than is the case with us. Organized parental public opinion is brought to bear on parents who neglect the comfort and well-being of their children; in extreme cases, when persuasion has failed, the authorities can remove a child from an incurably unsatisfactory home environment. Clubs for out-of-school activities, such as the Pioneer palaces so often described, are universal; these cater for every imaginable recreational, artistic, and scientific activity; the best have large libraries, laboratories, geography rooms, handwork rooms, theatres, rooms for chess and other games; they are staffed partly by trained salaried workers, partly by volunteer enthusiasts. By such methods an attempt is made to provide all children with a socially stimulating environment.

A further problem was the extreme backwardness of the exploited nationalities in the colonial parts of the former Russian Empire, where native schools were almost non-existent and adult literacy less than 1 per cent. of the population. Immense efforts have been made to remove this source of inequality and to

bring these culturally backward nationalities up to the higher standard of European Russia. Alphabets have been created and textbooks prepared in some forty hitherto unwritten languages, and huge investments made for the rapid development of native schools and universities, so that in a short space of twenty years the level of cultural attainment and educational opportunity has been raised, under the inspiration of Stalin's policy of full and free national development, to approximate equality with the rest of the U.S.S.R. In this raising of the level of the backward areas education has played a vital role. Yusupova, decorated for her services as a teacher in the Uzbek Republic, shows how this ferment of development has affected the individual. She writes :

'When I was eight I began going to a house built of clay, where we were forced mechanically to memorize religious books, particularly the Koran. The street door opened directly into our classroom ; in the centre of the earth floor there was a hole in which the wood brought by the pupils smouldered ; walls and ceiling were black with smoke. Our teacher sat on a mat, armed with a long stick with which to beat the pupils without leaving her place. We sat on the bare floor. Often during lesson time we swept out the teacher's apartment, did her washing and other housework. Little benefit was obtainable in such a school, but even this I was soon compelled to leave, as my father became ill. At ten years of age I was put to a sewing-machine, to swell the family income. When I was just 15 I was married to a stranger, without my wishes being consulted. But I was lucky ; my husband was a good man and began to teach me. I began teaching girls myself a year later.

'Afterwards I became a teacher in a Soviet school ; I remember in 1925 I would leave the house wearing a veil, walk several blocks, throw my veil back over my head. At first this seemed dreadful and shameful, it seemed as if everyone looked at a woman's uncovered face. In 1926 I finally "uncovered". At the same time I entered a woman's training school. After this I persuaded many women to discard the veil.

'Only twenty years ago no one would have believed that an Uzbek woman could be a doctor or an engineer, any more than that a sparrow could swallow the sun. Yet my family resembles thousands of Uzbek families ; no one is surprised that I have one son a doctor, one an aviator ; two more are university students ; one daughter is a teacher, another a university student. Yet this is an ordinary family and an ordinary life to which we are already accustomed.'

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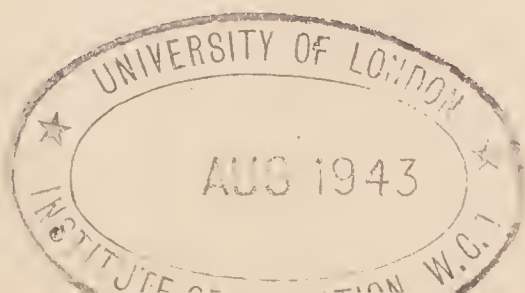
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At the age of 15 the first parting of the ways emerges. From this age secondary education, since the law of 1940, is no longer free. This law enforces an annual influx of a million boys into trade and factory schools of various types. The rapid growth of industry, and perhaps also the tense international situation, made this a necessity. However, compulsion was not needed, as in the first year of operation there were more than a million volunteers who preferred such courses to remaining at the secondary school. At 15, then, children may enter trade schools, which give a two-year training for skilled work in the metal, oil, railway, and other industries. Shorter less specialized courses may also be commenced at the age of 16. In all these schools the pupils devote two periods a day out of seven to general non-vocational subjects. Training and maintenance are free. In return the pupils undertake to work at their respective jobs in state enterprises for at least four years at trade union rates of pay. Work at a full-time job thus begins at the age of 17.

For children remaining at school beyond



the fifteenth year, *i.e.* in the three upper forms, the fees are £6 a year (£8 in the capital cities of the various republics). Orphans and children of parents with low incomes are excused the fees if they reach a reasonably proficient standard. Thus less than 4 per cent. of the cost of education is recovered from fees. Students who proceed to universities or similar institutions after completing the full ten-year secondary course pay fees varying from £12 to £16 a year; £20 in the art, music, and theatre schools. Here again fees are not payable in cases of need; subsistence grants are paid to students who show excellent progress. Even where fees are payable, they are often paid by the collective farm, trade union, factory club, or other voluntary local organization anxious to send the promising children of their members to a higher educational institution.

It is of vital importance to notice that these facilities are universal; by eliminating the cultural gulf between town and country they have revolutionized village life. In 1937 the writer visited a collective farm village near Kiev. Twenty years earlier the two village dictators had been the landowner and the priest; the village had been plunged in ignorance and poverty, with no school, no hospital, no club, no shop, no newspaper; now there is a well-run village club with musical, dramatic, and social activities, a small village shop, a hospital, and a secondary school reasonably well equipped to take all the village children up to 17. The elected manager of the farm was a young woman educated at the village school and sent to an agricultural course in Kiev, returning later to serve her home village; the head girl at the school was soon to enter a Kiev hospital for training as a nurse. Clearly in this village the educational ladder is as broad as in town and city.

In considering the choice at 15 or 16 between an industrial or commercial career and an academic or professional career, the attitude of Soviet citizens which has emerged during twenty years of Communist guidance must be kept in mind. The declared aim of eliminating the gulf which separates the worker by hand from the brain-worker has not yet been fully

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achieved, but the feeling that the 'black-coated' or 'professional' man is in any way the social superior of the man at the bench no longer exists; considerations of social prestige do not operate. The significance of this one fact will be appreciated by anyone who has seen on a Soviet ship the complete social equality reigning between deckhand and doctor, captain and cabin boy, or who knows how the absence of social barriers between officer and private in the Red Army works out in practice. In a society imbued with this equalitarian sentiment, individual ability and aptitude are the only important factors.

In so far as it is complete the system outlined above provides opportunities for the full development of the infinitely varied national and individual qualities which make up the 190 million inhabitants of the Soviet Union. National characteristics have flowered abundantly; physical well-being is made possible, within the limits of heredity, by the completeness of the free medical services available from the cradle to the grave; handicaps resulting from such inequalities of income as exist or from a bad home environment are largely eliminated by the wide provision of clubs for out-of-school activities, school meals, summer camps, and by the work carried on by the teachers and the trade unions; while the virtual absence of fees prevents the size of family income from becoming a factor in shaping the child's future.

The flood of talent, initiative, and constructive energy released by Soviet educational progress will be of inestimable value in the years of post-war reconstruction.

A Letter from Switzerland

*Institut des Sciences de l'Education,
Université de Genève,
February, 1941.*

DEAR MADAM,

You have cabled for an article of 2,000 words on whether there is equality of access to education in Switzerland. It is easy to imagine in what context you are now thinking of this problem. May the end of these terrible times bring more justice and less inequality, not only among nations, but among classes and individuals. We know how you feel, and we recall our aims and hopes of the last twenty-five years.

Alas ! 2,000 words are not needed to answer your question. One word of two letters is sufficient : NO. I think there is no need to tell you why this is so. The reasons are exactly those you know and experience yourselves ; educational opportunities are still conditioned by money.

For more than half a century there has been no illiteracy in Switzerland. Great progress in elementary education had been achieved, partly through Continuation Classes which, up to the war of 1914-18, were largely stimulated by the Recruits Examination. Unfortunately these Continuation Classes were prevented by their very purpose from offering anything that could not be definitely tested—the three R's and civics. The very teachers who had worked for the creation of these examinations came to consider them the chief obstacle to a better realization of active methods and aims in the Elementary Schools. I have told that curious and instructive story in a book published under the auspices of the International Enquiry on Examinations.¹

What the French call 'L'Ecole Unique'—regular attendance at common schools by the whole population, irrespective of social and money distinctions—is practically realized all over Switzerland. There are some differences owing to local traditions, German Switzerland being on the whole more democratic than the towns of Geneva, Lausanne, and Neuchâtel.

But on the whole, although we have no state monopoly in school matters, private schools with a social bias are rare, and in certain districts non-existent.

The school organization being in the hands of the Canton, it is useless to try to describe its twenty-five varieties. On the whole the rivalry which existed between the so-called secondary schools (colleges and *gymnases* founded in the sixteenth century with a curriculum which originally included Latin and Greek) and the people's schools (*Volkschulen*, developed in the nineteenth century so as gradually to include nine classes) has now almost completely disappeared ; the secondary schools are becoming increasingly a continuation of the elementary school.

The elementary school, being compulsory, is free. School books and other school materials are also free to every pupil. The fees required by secondary schools are low and appear to well-to-do parents as nominal contributions if their family is not too numerous.

But (I was going to add, of course) there can be no question of real equality of opportunities so long as the mere fact of sending a child to school after the age of compulsory attendance deprives the family of a possible source of earning which is urgently needed in the case of some and an indifferent matter in that of others.

Under the stress of the same preoccupation which I imagine to be yours now, a movement was started in Geneva in 1919 by an alliance called *Union Civique*, in which were represented on an equal footing the Trade Unions and some broad-minded *bourgeois*. One of the mottoes of this Union was 'Social Justice in Education', and a detailed programme was submitted and accepted chiefly under the influence of a socialist, Professor André Oltramare.

This movement was limited to the Canton of Geneva. No programme of the same type was launched in any other Canton.

The chief outcome of this programme in Geneva was the constitution of a *Fondation Pour l'Avenir*. Its aim is to discover every year among the pupils of the elementary schools the gifted

¹ *Les Examens de Recrues dans l'Armée suisse, 1854 to 1913*, Pierre Bovet.

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Particulars of membership and aims from THE N.E.F., BCM/NEWED, LONDON, W.C.1.

children who, because of financial limitations, would be unable to proceed to secondary education in a classical, technical, or crafts school. A sum of money was collected by an appeal to the public. Every year the State appropriates in its regular budget a sum equal to the interest produced by the sum originally collected. Some fifteen thousand Swiss francs are in this way available each year.

Gifted children are proposed to the Foundation either by their teachers or by their parents. A social enquiry is delicately conducted to find out the needs of the family. The children are submitted to a psychological investigation by competent experts. (The Institut J. J. Rousseau has co-operated in this examination from the very beginning.) All the candidates who appear to have distinct qualities for further studies are allowed exemption of all school fees.

A great deal of good has been done by the Fondation Pour l'Avenir. The scale of course remains small: during the first 15 years of its existence 224 pupils have been selected in the elementary schools of Geneva and helped financially: 125 boys and 99 girls. The subsidies have amounted during these 15 years to 254,000 Swiss francs altogether.

Among the children helped, 80 per cent. were Swiss, 20 per cent. foreigners.

The vocations to which their studies have led them are manifold:

Girls.—Business, 53 per cent.; teaching, 19 per cent.; art, 6.5 per cent.; crafts, 6.5 per cent.,

Boys.—Business, 32 per cent.; teaching, 19 per cent.; art, 11 per cent.; technicians, 26 per cent.

If every one of our 22 Swiss Cantons could boast a Foundation like the one started in Geneva in 1919, my answer to your question would be different. But Geneva stands alone. What is done everywhere in the line of ordinary scholarships occasionally awarded is I am afraid very sporadic. I know of no general study on this matter showing what is done by state and private corporations. I should not like to minimize their achievements, but I have not understood that your question was about philanthropic agencies.

I have written quite a few hundred words after all. But my first answer in one word is still the most important as I see it.

Yours truly,

Pierre Bovet.

English New Education Fellowship Conference

Exeter, January 1942

'What After Thirteen?' was the general theme of the Winter Conference of the New Education Fellowship (English Section) held at Exeter from the 1st to the 5th of January. It was attended by nearly 70 members in residence at Mardon Hall, University College of the South West, and by some 20 more who came in for one or more sessions. If the Conference did not get very far in answering the question it had set itself, this was not for lack of a lead from the main lecturers. We hope to publish shortly in *The New Era* substantial portions of the papers of Dr. C. H. Waddington, Fellow of Christ's College, Cambridge; Mr. E. G. Savage, Chief

Education Officer, London County Council; Mr. W. J. Deacon, Chief Education Officer for Somerset; and Mr. S. G. Checkland, President of the National Union of Students.

During the Conference the appointment of Dr. H. G. Stead as Organizing Secretary to the English Section was announced. Dr. Stead's practical knowledge of educational organization, his immense energy and his long view of the social implications of all educational processes should bring renewed vitality to the work of the Fellowship, especially where it is most needed, in the broad fields of the state education system and of students in training.

Book Reviews

The Ocean in English History. By James A. Williamson. (1941 : The Clarendon Press. 10/- net.)

In this volume Dr. Williamson has published the Ford Lectures which he delivered in the University of Oxford during the summer of 1940. At the time of their delivery the ocean was once again playing a notable part in the history of Britain and the World ; but no echo of the din of Dunkirk, the battle of the Atlantic, or the conflict in the Mediterranean, disturbs the tranquillity of Dr. Williamson's narrative. The story which Dr. Williamson tells, indeed, does not come nearer to the present day than the Napoleonic period. Moreover, it does not begin before the date of the discovery of America. So that altogether not much more than three centuries are covered. Now the ocean played a prominent part in English history for many hundreds of years before 1492 ; and during the period 1815-1914, when Britain enjoyed the undisputed command of the Sea, it was the link that held the Empire together. It is much to be hoped, therefore, that Dr. Williamson will supplement his Ford lectures by dealing with the important periods that preceded and followed that of which they treat.

It must be gratefully admitted, however, that the three centuries that are covered by Dr. Williamson's Lectures were of paramount importance in the history of British sea-power. Each of them saw a crucial conflict (with Spain, the Dutch and France in turn) victoriously concluded.

The significance of these successive struggles is well set forth in Dr. Williamson's lucid lectures. His intimate knowledge of the history of the British Empire enables him to show how command of the sea caused the British Dominion insensibly to grow, while even a momentary loss of that command in the years 1780-82 caused the thirteen American colonies to be lost. A more novel and extremely interesting feature of Dr. Williamson's work, however, is his examination and exposition of the ways in which the command of the Sea affected the economic development of the British Isles themselves. He shows in a masterly manner how important has been what he calls the 'Oceanic factor' in the shaping of modern Britain.

Dr. Williamson's footnotes indicate the wideness of his reading. The addition of a book-list would be welcome if a new addition is called for.

F. J. C. Hearnshaw

Letters to Margaret, by Theodore Faithful. (Allen and Unwin, 1941 . . 5/-.)

When I started reading *Letters to Margaret* I tried to put my mind back four years, in order to find out whether the book would have interested me, and whether it would have helped me as a 14-year-old in a co-educational school. *Letters to Margaret* is largely about the psychological development (both

the male and female elements) in children and adults, especially in regard to their attitude to the opposite sex. It is addressed to a girl of twelve.

When I had finished the book I felt that had I read it four years ago it would only have muddled me. I don't think that a normal and healthy child of 12-15, to whom has been explained the mechanism of sex in a scientific manner, would be interested in it at all. If the author wants to analyse love, I don't think that there is any need to do that for so young a reader. If one is normal, love (in those years merely an admiration for masters and fellow-pupils) comes by itself, and I am sure no girl or boy would think it unnatural. I think psycho-analysis has been found to help ill people, but it should not be used to pull to pieces and muddle up the perfectly natural feelings of a normal person, particularly in adolescence.

Hella Levi

* * * * *

This book contains in a series of letters, an attempt by a psychologist to explain to a girl of 13 the nature of love between men and women. There is no question of setting out the physiological facts, and one must be grateful for the basic recognition in the very plan of the book, that the implicit curiosity in the young about love is not resolved by any purely physiological enlightenment. This Mr. Faithful assumes, and the letters set out instead a careful anatomical survey of male and female mental processes and a comparative study of their emotional attitudes. The author implements the case he puts from many simple mythological sources, from the commoner type of symbolism of colour and form and from the literature of the Bible and English verse.

If you are intelligent, with some experience of love and of living, you are likely to read this book as an interesting intellectual exercise in sorting that experience, occasionally wishing that the strictly scientific and the purely intuitive and mystical were more clearly differentiated in the author's mind and that the terminology had been kept either uniformly simple or uniformly subtle. If you are an intelligent adolescent with intellectual preoccupations, rightly or wrongly, you will actively disbelieve much that is set out in the book, and I cannot imagine that you will relate this skeleton picture to life around and ahead of you. If you are an average girl of 13, I am afraid you will not read very far.

Psycho-analytic technique is, after all, not a method of giving people bare information about themselves, but of so revealing their experience that their changed feelings about it will take them forward into more abundant living.

Hella Levi's suggestion that this book outstrips the need of the 14-year-old (and I am sure of much older groups) does not perhaps mean that young people are not curious about the personal relationships of men and women, but they are surely only curious and educable within the limits of their expanding experience and observations, and of this limit Mr. Faithful's book has quite lost sight.

Ruth Thomas

The A B C of Criminology. By Anita M. Muhl. (Melbourne University Press, 1941. 8/6.)

Both of our system of education and of our penal system it can unfortunately be said that they are expensive and rather ineffective. The ineffectiveness of the penal system is more obvious to the general public because they come to know many recidive cases.

One reason why people find criminology a thrilling subject is because it is so easy and so nice to have the opportunity to criticize others. This book was written to feed this nice feeling of superiority. The author likes to tell stories, and as her profession—she is a psychologist—brought her into close contact with criminals, she has many stories to tell, some of them really interesting. It is a pity that she carefully avoids raising any deeper issue. She is one of the enthusiasts who can and do help in certain cases because they are optimistic and their final belief is that practically everything is merely a question of kindness. Perhaps just for this reason some people will like to begin their studies of criminology with this book—but I hope they will not end them with it.

Michael Bálint

Baby Animals on the Farm, by Vere Temple, 2/6 ; I Wish I Could Draw, by Percy V. Bradshaw, 8/6; Teaching Art to Children, by Minnie McLeish, 8/6. (The Studio, 1941.)

There is a fascination about written directions for making things (*Mrs. Beeton* is an excellent bedside book), quite apart from whether you intend to make them and from the efficiency of the directions. Therefore none of these books is boring. But when you hear, as I have in a bookseller's to-day, that 'Shakespeare and Tolstoy's *War and Peace* are out of print because of the paper shortage', you approach any newly-published book in a more highly critical frame of mind than ever before. Is it genuinely worth the paper on which it is printed?

The drawings in *Baby Animals on the Farm* are excellent, and Vere Temple writes a clear description of her own way of working—the grade of pencil, the thumb-smudged chalk, the sharp line. This is interesting to anyone, but the book is meant for children, and there is no sense in the idea of a child laboriously trying to imitate the personal reactions and technique of an adult. Drawing is an activity natural to every child, and children should be encouraged and allowed to draw in their own way. No one who had anything to do with this book seems to have thought of this, though goodness knows it is said often enough nowadays. Though perhaps it is *not* said often enough outside 'educational circles', to such people as parents and publishers, for example. The truth is that such books are published because uninformed people will buy them as presents for 'artistic' children. This is a good book of a bad sort, which will do no harm.

I Wish I Could Draw, by Percy V. Bradshaw, is

one of the 'How To Do It' series, and is intended presumably for adults. The drawings on the cover and in the book are not a good advertisement for the methods advocated.

Teaching Art to Children, by Minnie McLeish, is by far the most useful of these three books. We have, however, reached a queer state of affairs where such a title can be used. Is art something which grown-ups impart in twopenny instalments to an inferior species called children, or is it a natural instinct, part of the inheritance of every human creature? Fortunately, Miss McLeish does know the right answer, though her book is a jumble of too many things, further confused by the fact that it is written for both children and teachers.

The book is well illustrated, and describes a large number of crafts, including modelling, basketry, weaving, fabric printing, toy-making, puppetry, embroidery and lettering. At the end is a rather surprising section on the presentation of food. Each section contains a Note to the Child, rather archly expressed, and a Note to the Teacher giving sensible though very slight directions in technique, and in some cases an outline of the history of the craft. There are also some sound ideas on the reasons for encouraging children to use their hands. Two of the best things in the book are a recipe for paper pulp, and this sentence from the Preface: '(This book) makes no attempt to give complete instructions for making anything. It is rather a plea for greater unity of thought and purpose in all such teaching—a richer background for the teacher—a wider horizon.'

Nan Youngman

Child Nutrition in a Rural Community, Studies in Education, No. 6. By H. C. O. Somerset. (The New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1941.)

This study and report is of special interest. It arose not from outside but from within the school. It was initiated and carried out by one of the teachers and represents an outstanding example of co-operation between parent, teacher, and child, the school doctor and school nurse. It is of interest as a practical contribution to the estimate of nutrition; the use of milk in the improvement of nutrition; the value of making health the first consideration in the school organization and programme.

Mr. Somerset found the generally accepted figures bearing on nutrition as misleading in New Zealand as we have found them to be in this country. He found that the school was expected to achieve a healthy body with the aid of little more than physical exercises and organized games. He shows how our growing concern for the individual child, as a reaction against the treatment of children in mass, can only become fruitful as we consider the child in all his relationships and surroundings. Our schools must 'in addition to being centres of learning become also centres of creative social study.'

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For the non-clinical estimate of nutrition the Baldwin-Wood age-height-weight method was used, upon the use of which there is an interesting discussion. The records extend over a period of more than a year. The results of this 'good health campaign' proved most satisfactory, malnutrition being reduced from 23 per cent. in February 1935 to 8.5 per cent. in February in 1936. It may be added that over £100 was spent on milk and apparatus during the experiment, the whole sum being provided and collected by the parents of this rural community. Useful suggestions are made for further research.

R. H. C.

Introduction to Citizenship. By J. C. Hill.
(Oxford University Press, 1941. 1/9.)

This book is somewhat disappointing. The conception is good. The book deals not so much with citizenship in its political sense as with the problems, social, moral and intellectual with which any individual has to deal. These cover subjects such as health, education, use of leisure, working of the human mind, and so on. This attempt to deal with social ethics is not entirely successful, for so brief a treatment is almost bound at times to be misleading. Further, the suggestions for reading and 'things to do' at the end of each chapter are far more difficult than the letterpress itself, which is confusing.

E. M. H.

Redeeming the Time: A Survey of the Junior Instruction Centre Movement,
by Owen E. Evans. (University Press of Liverpool, 1941, 2/6.)

This picture of the J.I.C. is a gloomy one. So many difficulties, so little encouragement, that even Mr. Caradog Jones says 'by their nature they cannot be a complete success'. If this is so, and the evidence submitted is convincing, is it not wise to discover a reason for its apparent shortcomings? J.I.C.'s failed because they did not achieve what the boy or girl wanted: restitution to a normal place in society. The J.I.C. boy was always an outcast, getting his existence by special means. Work was replaced by an enforced leisure utilized by the activities of the

centre. The fallacy is that the leisure itself was not 'rightful'. He was surfeited with leisure activities in the centre and in his uncontrolled periods turned to other and often baser pleasures. All the delinquencies point to this fact—that the boy was attempting, by fair means or foul, to take his place in the normal routine of life. Lacking control over his work problem, he was determined to keep his place in the social round of his environment. The solution is not so much educational as industrial. Unemployment must be spread over the community whenever it rears its head, and never allowed to settle in one district or one trade.

G. W. Ette

The S.A.B. Book, First Volume, by Cyril Winn.
(Boosey & Hawkes. Price 1/- net.)

This useful collection of thirty-one well-known songs, containing such favourites as 'All thro' the Night', 'Barbara Allen', etc., has been advocated by Dr. Griffiths in his book reviewed above, for 'adolescent male voices'. The melodies, probably already known to the boy, are given to the bass part and written in the bass clef, and this assists the boy whose voice has but recently broken, to read bass notation and to 'hold his part', thus providing useful material for those teachers who rightly desire to retain the singing class for older boys through this transition period.

M. A. C.

Our Own Age, by Professor A. M. Low.
(Nelson, 2/6.)

In a more enlightened age, it will be illegal to give misleading titles to books as it is to-day illegal to print inaccurate prescriptions on medicine bottles. The contents of this book are concerned solely with communications and transport. Admittedly, these two factors have played an important part in creating our own age, but such a title implies rather more than these two factors.

However 'this is all such fun', says the author, and it is perhaps unfair to raise academic objections against such an obviously unacademic book. It is readable, the diagrams are clear, it is full of interesting information and explanations, and for boys who find romance in science it will prove scientifically romantic. Some may raise an eyebrow on reading that 'it is our good fortune that knowledge and reason have progressed since . . . old women were burnt alive as witches on the evidence of children', but the author deems it wise to ignore that our own age is an age of concentration camps (among other amenities). But when the author says: 'I believe that the knowledge of what space really is will one day be achieved' one wonders if romance may not have got the better of science. What *does* he mean?

One last protest: to begin with 'This is all such fun' and to finish with 'Questions and Exercises' is, shall we say, a little unpsychological.

G. P. M.

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THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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WHAT AFTER 13?*

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A Culture Relevant for To-day

C. H. Waddington

Fellow of Christ's College, Cambridge.
Author of 'Introduction to Modern Genetics',
'The Scientific Attitude' (Pelican Books), etc.

CULTURE is an ambiguous word. It can be used in a very narrow sense, as when we speak of acquiring culture by visiting the right museums and reading the right books. Or it can be used in a very broad sense, as the anthropologists use it when they write of the culture of a tribe of Indians, including in that term the whole material and mental circumstances of life in that society. I shall be using the term in an intermediate sense for the dominant themes, both mental and material, underlying the enormously complex detail of civilized life to-day.

It will not be necessary to attempt a full classification of all the elements which go to make up a culture, but, as well as the division into material and mental, one further subdivision of the latter category will be useful. Anthropologists speak of the *eidos* and the *ethos* of a culture. When those terms are used in the general way in which they will be employed here, the *eidos* is the name for the

general characteristics of the intellectual thought and beliefs of the society: its dependence on logic or on argument by similarity, its reliance on empirical observation or on deductive reasoning, its tendency to analysis or its predilection for concrete expression. Similarly, the *ethos* of a society is its emotional 'feel' and its general ethical motivations: the aggressive or co-operative behaviour of its members, their ruthlessness or sympathy and so on.

All these three aspects of culture, the material, the *ethos*, and the *eidos*, are involved in every act of every member of a society. Except in an ideally equalitarian society, they are of course differently involved in the acts of different members. In a healthy society, there is some degree of uniformity in the material circumstances, the *ethos* and the *eidos*, of the various individuals. But in most societies, this uniformity is by no means complete; the society is usually broken up

* All the articles in this issue have been taken from papers read at the New Education Fellowship (English Section) Conference held at Exeter, January, 1942.

into classes, which may be differentiated materially, or in respect of their ethos and/or eidos. In our own civilization, this breakdown has gone to very great lengths. Our extraordinarily complex mechanical civilization was bound to give rise to a very intricate structure of material classes, related to the particular parts which different groups play in the whole productive and exchange system. But in the train of this specialization there has followed a differentiation not only in income, but also in thought and feeling, so that we now regard the faculty of being a good mixer as a rare and enviable skill. Only too often the easiest way to make contact with a fellow-citizen is to descend to the lowest common eidological or ethological factor; an extensive collection of smoking-room stories is probably the best passport through the jungle of dissimilar cultures we are trying to live in.

The relation between the stability of a society and its differentiation into classes is a subject about which we know far too little. One thesis may be advanced, more as a subject for debate than as an ascertained fact—it appears likely that societies can usually accommodate without much difficulty the strains set up by a class differentiation which affects only one of the three main aspects of culture. Thus the mediæval feudal system was very stable, although it had a well-marked economic and material stratification; but the difference between lord and villein was almost entirely a material one, since both shared much the same ethos and eidos, which was ultimately based on the Church. The society broke up only with the growth of a new class, the bourgeoisie, whose ethos and eidos, as well as their economic position differed from that of the rest.

In considering our society, in which class differentiation has gone to lengths so disastrous, it would be of the greatest importance to understand the mechanism by which a differentiation arising in respect of one aspect of culture becomes extended to affect the others. Why was it that the rising bourgeoisie burst out of the orderly framework of feudal Christianity? Again, a generalization about such a point can be put forward only as the most tentative of hypotheses. But it may be suggested that in the extension of a schism, a

most important part is played by a distinction between what one might call the macroscopic and the microscopic. The former comprises the general, cosmological or universal contexts, the latter the particular and detailed, and the individual case. The ethical system of feudal Christianity was primarily applicable to the microscopic: to one's actual neighbours and acquaintances. It left the macroscopic field only lightly defended, so that it easily capitulated to the bourgeois practice, which condoned transactions carried out at long-range by such means as bills of exchange, which would not have been tolerated among neighbours.

A culture relevant for to-day must not only bring ethos and eidos into a coherent relation with material techniques, but must also be applicable both to the microscopic and macroscopic fields. But here we immediately meet with an apparent difficulty. Our material culture is by now based at almost every point on scientific knowledge, and would be inconceivable without it. Part, at any rate, of our intellectual attitude to the world must therefore be based on science. But it is usually held that science cannot provide an adequate basis for the whole of our culture; and we are then faced with an apparently inescapable dualism, between science, rooted in material techniques, and some other cultural force which is called in to direct the remaining aspects of civilization.

It may be asked, however, whether science is really incapable of becoming the underlying inspiration of all aspects of a culture. It is necessary to consider, stage by stage, what its relevance might be to the various cultural fields which have been distinguished above.

In the narrowest view of science, its functions are confined to material techniques and the micro-eidos, the particular detailed theories immediately derived from technique. Commonsense, or general culture of a non-scientific kind, is supposed to determine the aims of society, and the sole function of science is to show how those aims may be realized. This was, and largely still is, the theory on which our governmental organization of science is based. But in some fields it has already proved obviously inadequate during the course of the war. It has turned out that commonsense, or

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general culture, is quite unable to determine aims in a way which is sufficiently definite for action to be taken. In nutrition, for instance, no adequate formulation of aims is possible except in the scientific terms of calories, vitamin-units and so on ; again, in the field of population control, the very existence of a social problem was only revealed by scientific analysis. In these contexts, science has already expanded its scope from the small-scale theories of how to do things, to take in the more general problem of determining what we consider to be the important features of social life. It is becoming, in fact, the dominant influence in our macro-eidos ; and this spread can certainly go much further than it has as yet.

Against such a spread there is not likely to be a very strong intellectual resistance ; there is no firmly held intellectual view of the universe based on something other than science. But there is a much more deeply rooted objection to the suggestion that science can also play an important part in determining the ethos of society. This does not relate so

much to the micro-ethos, to our day-to-day attitude to our friends and our immediate small affairs. For it is clear that science has a micro-ethical attitude. It is slow to be certain, but is ready to act ; it is interested in things not for their own sake but chiefly in respect of their relations to the rest of the world ; it emphasizes the feeling of curiosity rather than that of wonder ; it is primarily empiric rather than deductive. But it is just in these micro-ethical attitudes that a society can accommodate the greatest variability among its members : the scientific micro-ethos exists and might well become more general, but it will never be one of the prime factors in the integration of culture.

The macro-ethos is of far greater importance. Science impinges on it in two ways. The less important, perhaps, is as an example. One of the major problems facing society is the solution of the paradox of freedom and unity. Within the sphere of science, this problem is solved more satisfactorily than in any other context. Scientists work within the orderly framework of previous knowledge, but their

most important effort is directed towards the free modification of that framework. They accept, within their own field, the authority of a democracy of experts. Such a solution will not be easy to extend over the whole range of society's interests. Science can for a long time to come fulfil the valuable function of being an example worthy of general emulation.

The second way in which science is relevant to the macro-ethos of society is in relation to ethics. The wide acceptance of a single general ethical theory is probably the most important step towards the development of a coherent culture. It has, in the last fifty years, been fairly generally agreed that science has nothing to contribute to the formulation of ethical theory. But such a conclusion is extremely difficult for a biologist to accept. The full statement of the case that it is possible to derive an ethical system from scientific knowledge is too long to be given here; it has been sketched in *Nature*, October 4th, 1941. The general line of argument starts by asserting that our

motives (including our ethical aims) are not arbitrary but are determined by the interaction of the human constitution with the universe which surrounds it. They are, in fact, one phase of the process of adaptation of a living organism to its environment. The result of this adaptation has been evolution; and the essential ethical direction of mankind is therefore the carrying forward of the evolutionary progress.

Whether this point of view will finally be considered to have justified itself or not, it is at least a possibility. Science, some participation of which in a culture with the mechanical basis which we employ cannot be avoided, is therefore in a position to become a dominant influence in both the *eidos* and the *ethos* of society, and at the same time to unify their large and small-scale aspects. An integrated culture relevant to our present needs could therefore be built on a scientific basis. Is there any other human activity which is in a position to offer as much?

Youth in the Brotherhood of Man

S. G. Checkland

**President of the National
Union of Students**

YOUTH, like maturity, requires a purpose on two principal planes—the individual and the corporate. There are those things which are his peculiar concern, and there are those aspirations he shares with society in general. The kind of world in which the present crop of 'after 13s' have lived and are living has not helped them to find a purpose on either plane. If their sense of direction to-day seems faulty, if their scale of values seems distorted, it should be remembered they are the children not of quiet and persistent progress towards enlightenment and perspective, but of periods of preoccupation and fear, interspersed with alarms and excursions which have risen steadily to an unheard-of crescendo of conflict and violence. Youth can with some justification ask how it has been possible to discover a social purpose in a society which seems to it to alternate between periods of complete rigidity, in which inertia is the chief enemy, and periods of total flux when no one

is able to describe to it the institutional framework in which (if it survive) it must live.

Furthermore, the attitude of the adult community in this country towards purpose and idealism is not very helpful to youth. The Aristotelian attitude of immoderate moderation is still strong amongst us. One cannot avoid the impression that in this island there is something disreputable, or even indecent about publicly embracing a purpose. We must bring ourselves to state our ideals without apology, in order that youth, when it is making its choice, is not baffled by the apparent indifference of its elders to the fate of the principles they endorse.

But in spite of bewilderment and the pseudo-sophistication of our day I do not think youth is greatly changed. Youth is as fond as ever of action; it is still humanity's great reserve of idealism—the embracer of the desperate crusade. Those great qualities—virility and idealism, are still with us in full measure.

Is it possible in a world such as this for young persons to apply this inherited strength ; to see their lives in terms of anything bigger than themselves ? The young apprentice, the delivery boy, the junior clerk, the student, does he see anything beyond his immediate task—has he any motivation beyond his personal lot ? Sometimes it would seem so, but not often. He needs help in the development of his missing sense of direction. If you were to ask the working youth, who chiefly benefits by his efforts, he would say, his employer. Can we get beyond this ?

We must. We are aware that if these great forces are not harnessed to some social end our lives will redegenerate into the kind of thing which has produced slums and poverty, frustration, and finally war. Unless this gulf between the individual youth and society is bridged, idealism will perish and self-service will again be the rule.

How shall youth discover a purpose, whether individual or collective ? Crudely there appear three alternatives—youth trying to arrive on its own at a conception of purpose for itself ; elders formulating a code for them, and trying by precept and even by pressure to enforce it ; or a co-operative arrangement to which both contribute and conform. Youth cannot lift itself by its own bootstraps—the job of giving it direction is a composite one requiring the co-operation of all sections of the community.

But this is too simple. In general youth receives its ideas from maturity, and it seems all would be well if maturity were unanimous. The trouble arises where a group of youth is offered a choice and makes a selection not congenial to the particular group of elders with which it has to do. In such a case what is to determine the ruling course for youth : the decision which youth has made, or what its elders consider would be good for it ? Here we touch upon a basic problem of all democratic society : the use and justification of persuasion and coercion. Is the tradition of individual volition to be sacrosanct in the case of the decisions of youth ?

No facile generalization seems possible ; each case must be one of diagnosis and judgment on its merits. Where youth, individually or as a group, appears to be too greatly

concerned with what youth requires of life to the neglect of what life requires of youth, or where wants are in obvious conflict with needs, maturity is justified in intervening. But we must beware of youth becoming, as has occurred elsewhere, the sounding-board of the factious opinions of its elders, or the target of one-sided propaganda.

In the broadest terms we all seek morality and justice—a code whereby the rights and duties of man are made clear, and the means whereby they may be protected and enforced. Group morality may in a sense be regarded as a perspective of loyalties between the communities into which mankind arranges itself. The concept is simple, but its application is far from easy. Provided youth is prepared to think beyond mere selfish ends, it must ask : what does one owe to the conflicting claims of family, village or city, region, state, race, or humanity ?

On the significance youth and elders attach to each will depend the form of their common purpose. In the hour of our greatest peril in 1940 we thought in terms of the nation, as things progressed we have diltantated with the concept of race as represented in an 'Anglo-Saxon Union', but now, as it becomes apparent the thing we are fighting for is no respecter of nation, race, or creed, we are broadening our view to embrace the whole of humanity. It is an encouraging sign. But the problem is enormously complicated. We must develop our perspective of loyalties not merely in the form of a single order of preference which will act as a general rule of conduct, with the concept of humanity at the top, but we must know how to apply it to the particular issues in order that when the thing works as a whole it will produce the greatest possible measure of equity between all men. Add to the enormity of this problem the crowning difficulty of protecting our system from the amoral forces which regard concessions which are made in its furtherance as a means of forwarding their own interests, and its full magnitude becomes apparent. But if we are to survive it must be attempted, and if it is to succeed it must indeed become the focal purpose for youth. Youth is strong in unity with respect to the negative part of this purpose—we are agreed on what

we do not want. The test will come when we begin to formulate what we do want.

Thus it seems that the purpose to which youth should be invited to subscribe is the ancient one of the establishment of the brotherhood of man—nothing new in theory or pronouncement, but how new it would be in practice! Is youth ready to embrace it? It is difficult to speak for those who are at this moment engaged in war, with all its distortions of mind and spirit, though even in their case there are encouraging signs. Youths too, who have had no opportunity of learning what really is at stake and thus merely accept with perhaps a mutter or a groan what society presents to them, are also difficult to answer for. But where there has been opportunity to study these things, where youth has been enabled to form some kind of opinion, there are irrefutable signs that this is the purpose it has chosen for itself. The students of this country, in formulating resolutions expressing their desire for these things and their ideas as to how they should be brought about have exposed themselves to no little criticism. On the international plane the same is true. At an international student conference at Cambridge a week or so ago students of some fourteen nations, most of whom have had some taste of the terror which is stalking the earth, set forth this concept as their great purpose.

Our 'purpose', thus expressed, is one of exalted morality. Will it be sufficiently self-sustaining to survive the years, lean in ideals, which invariably accompany the safe and expansive years of physical well-being? It seems a paradox of human affairs that we evolve our statements of communal purpose when we are most sorely tried. In the midst of war and the threat of starvation we begin eagerly to discuss long-term purposes for mankind; amidst peace and plenty we become engrossed in acquisition.

Is the dynamic of a religion essential in order that youth may bring to fruition its ideals? As a Christian I know a little of the sustaining power of religion; it has helped me greatly. Almost by definition it would help any who could accept it. But am I to regard as hopeless the implementation of my ideals because I am

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aware that many who share my moral code have no part in my religion? I cannot bring myself to regard the contribution toward a common end by a non-Christian as inferior to my own, or to suggest that though at present such a person is pulling his full weight he will be unable to go the whole way.

Amongst students this ever-available question is often the battle-ground of debate. The religionists (if they are wise, composing their differences) hurl at their opponents the epithets of hedonist and philistine; the agnostics and atheists (united in negation) heap derision on the undemonstrable, immeasurable concepts of faith, the life hereafter etc. Though as often happens the principal question of the debate always remains unresolved, two warnings usually emerge from the discussion. To the agnostic: beware of iconoclasm for its own sake; do not permit your sense of mischief to harden into bitterness and bring forth things not intended. To the Christian: beware of exclusiveness, and the view which has no room for non-subscribers. The concept of the 'chosen people' takes many

forms, all requiring to be handled with the greatest care.

The job of the educationist is to harness the dynamic forces which are available in society. If Christianity is wilting, that should be the concern of the Church, and of Christians as such; the educationist in his professional role should not concern himself with these things. But here we detect the distant footfall of the religious education controversy.

There is a long vista of common ground ahead; in matters affecting the well-being of the younger generation, concepts as to action will seldom be mutually contradictory or exclusive. As educationists we should argue these things in terms of particular cases and given circumstances. As philosophers or theologians we may be as metaphysical as we like.

Rural Youth¹

W. J. Deacon

IT is noteworthy how many of the boys and girls leaving the elementary schools in the countryside respectively take up agricultural and domestic work. The Board of Education pamphlet 'Education and the Countryside' (1934) contains the result of a careful statistical sampling of rural places which shows that 63 per cent. of the boys on leaving school worked on farms or in village trades, while 70 per cent. of the girls engaged in domestic work.² This finding has a particular significance when we consider the village community as a cultural unit. There can be no mass production, no Bedaux system, in agriculture or domestic work. Both are skilled occupations, and there is the possibility of a continuous refinement of technique; although it must be admitted that the full possibility of this is not always realized.

While there is a relative sparseness of formal rural education at the stage of later adolescence, this has to some extent been relieved by the Service of Youth in the villages. For some years past the major voluntary youth organiza-

Thus, in spite of two wars in a generation, youth is no subscriber to the theory of the inevitability of catastrophe. Let us take heart in the thought that idealism and virility is unimpaired. Let us state our aims in the field of education and elsewhere clearly and without apology. Let us seek earnestly and in mutual understanding for a synthesis of the needs and aspirations of youth and maturity, remembering the dark valley through which we have come together. Let us see that youth is able in its own mind to see itself in a broad social context, relating its personal efforts to the good of humanity. And let us remember that in the solving of the problems of the present and the future there will be a full call both on the agnostic moralist and on the Christian dogmatist.

Chief Education Officer, Somerset

tions, particularly the Scouts, Guides and youth organizations attached to the Churches, have been widespread throughout the countryside. The introduction of the National Service of Youth has led to a characteristic rural development, especially in village Youth Clubs, Youth Service Squads, and incipient schemes under the County Badge Movement. The Air Training Corps has captured the imagination of the boy living in the country no less than the boy living in the town, and it is interesting to observe the progress that is being made in the technical subjects of the A.T.C. training and with what cheerfulness and persistence boys will bicycle five miles each way to attend their parades once or twice a week.

Another organization, characteristic of the countryside, that is meeting with considerable success is the Young Farmers' Club. The Young Farmers' Club is peculiar in that it covers an age-range which extends from 10 to 21+, and has, as it has demonstrated, two considerable assets. First, it is rooted in the soil, and secondly the initiative in the Club is

¹ For some statistics about Rural Education, see Note at the end of this article. Statistics quoted, except where otherwise stated, relate to 1937.

² The enquiry also showed that at that point the drift from the

land was much smaller than was often stated and that there was only a slight tendency for young people in rural areas to change from one type of occupation to another.

in the hands of the members and they have proved their proficiency in running their Clubs. No one who has been present at a business meeting of a Young Farmers' Club of normal standard would fail to be impressed by the high level of self-government displayed. The movement in the past has had a regrettable tendency to confine itself to the sons and daughters of farmers and not to be fully representative of the young workers in the agricultural industry, but this is a fault which the authorities of the movement are endeavouring to correct.

ON all sides, thought is now being given to the reconstruction of national life which must follow the War, and not least to that which Milton in his 'Tractate' touches upon as :

'The reforming of Education . . . one of the greatest and noblest designs which can be thought of and for the want whereof this Nation perishes.'

The supreme need is for a new inflection ; a fresh modulation of education. It would be hard to find a better prescription for this work than the statement of Whitehead in his *Aims of Education* :

'Culture is activity of thought and receptiveness to beauty and humane feeling . . . What we should aim at producing is men who possess both culture and expert knowledge in some special direction. Their expert knowledge will give them the ground to start from and their culture will lead them as deep as philosophy and as high as art. We have to remember that the valuable intellectual development is self-development and that it mostly takes place between the ages of sixteen and thirty.'

The conceiving of education as primarily an adult activity would be a great reform and would have the invaluable corollary of an unloading of the present school syllabus. Hitherto, as considerably more than 80 per cent. of the nation's children have been ensured formal training only up to the age of 14 years, there has been a desperate attempt, with which one can feel some sympathy, to cram into the syllabus concepts quite beyond the immature mind. In the future more attention must be devoted to the cultivation of the emotions through art, and it must be realized that what is important in school is not the acquisi-

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tion of a mass of information, but the creation of an attitude to life which is at once vigorous and discerning.

Whitehead indicates the importance of expert knowledge in some special direction. For the great mass of men and women in the countryside this will be found in their work, so it is perhaps of particular interest to consider the relationship between education and agriculture. It is a matter of some speculation what place agriculture will take in the national economy after the War. This problem was recently examined in an article in *The Times*, and the writer formed the conclusion that having regard, in the international sphere, to the necessity of avoiding restraint of agriculture in those countries where it is a predominant industry, and in this country to the necessity of securing a balanced economy which will recognize the high importance and value of the manufacturing industries, there is not likely to be a great increase in the number of men employed on the land. The writer states : 'The primary aim of a permanent policy for British agriculture cannot be to divert more of

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our man-power to agriculture, but by every means to raise the quality of the farming and the productivity of the man-power employed. And this involves, broadly speaking, three things—technical improvements in farming, the development of fertility, and the change-over from less remunerative to more remunerative types of production.'

This means, to use an agricultural metaphor, that our main object must be an intensive cultivation of technical skill, that is to say the task is chiefly a problem of education.

Having this in mind it is interesting to study some of the proposals for agricultural education which have been framed by the Somerset branch of the National Farmers' Union and passed to their Headquarters for submission to the Luxmoore Committee, which is now considering this question.

To begin with they strongly affirm that if any scheme of agricultural education is to be effective a condition precedent is that agricultural policy after the war shall be such as to make the agricultural industry attractive.

After a brief survey of primary and post-

primary education in relation to agriculture (in which the interesting suggestion is made that as an adjunct to the miniature farm of the senior school there should be a hostel established in which a small team of children would live-in by rota so that they might take charge of the stock, since this needs to be looked after seven days a week and children are normally at school for five days only during term time) the Somerset farmers go on to state that, although the establishment of day continuation schools in rural areas will present considerable difficulties of organization, they feel very strongly that if the agricultural industry is to achieve the status that they hope for, and is to have parity with other industries in the eyes of the community, boys and girls engaged in it should have the opportunity of attending these schools. They envisage that students will attend for a time equivalent to one day a week for two years between the ages of 15 and 17. In their view the day continuation school should provide for physical welfare (*e.g.* physical training, medical and dental inspection and treatment), the continuance of general education, and rural economics, including the elements of book-keeping. It should also include for boys, science and simple mechanical engineering, possibly based upon the internal combustion engine, and for girls domestic science with special application to country life. Such a training would be of value to all residents in the countryside, even though of special use to those engaged in the agricultural industry.

Technical schools are also asked for at convenient centres, to offer facilities for evening studies for those desiring to make use of them.

An extended provision of farm institutes, recruiting at the age of 17, is also recommended. The main functions of these institutes would be :

- (i) To provide a residential course for farmers and farm workers who desire it ;
- (ii) to provide a preliminary residential training for those intending to enter, and suited for the technical and research services ancillary to agriculture;
- (iii) to provide residential training courses in rural science and agricultural practice for teachers in senior, secondary and day continuation schools.

It is also desired that in connection with the farm institutes there should be experimental farms, and the advisory services to farms, on the same lines as now found in certain counties, but having wider scope. The several demonstration farms should be sited on different types of soil, and the system of financing this work should be such as to offer the same opportunities all over the country.

Scholarships on a generous scale, and support to the Young Farmers' Club movement, are asked for; and then the farmers suggest that teachers who intend working in rural schools should spend six months of their training course in institutions of agricultural education, such as farm institutes, agricultural colleges and university agricultural departments, and that this should be supplemented by periodical courses held in similar institutions, either in vacations or in such a manner as to fit in with other functions of these institutions.

Many also hope that the projected developments in the education of the adolescent will also lead to increased skill in the management of the home. After the war there may not be the same volume of domestic work as paid employment, but doubtless a large number of girls will still take up this type of work, and it is important that its status should be raised. With better facilities for continued teaching and such conditions of employment as are outlined in the domestic workers' charter, compiled by the National Council of Women, aiming at transforming the young maid into an apprentice in household management, a radical improvement might be secured. There will also be better opportunities for the training of those girls entering other forms of employment, most of whom are destined for home-making as wives and mothers. It is sometimes said that the crucial thing in education is the education of parents. The reforms adumbrated above would be a long step in the right direction.

NOTE.—Rather less than one-fifth of the total number of children in elementary schools in England and Wales are found in the rural parts (after excluding the urban portions of Counties). And there are certain features of primary and post-primary education which it is desirable to take into

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consideration. In the rural schools there is a high proportion of co-education; for instance, the number of mixed schools in proportion to each single-sex school in the various types of area is as follows:

In County Boroughs	.	.	.	2
In urban parts of Counties	.	.	.	3
In rural parts of Counties	.	.	.	20

There is a high proportion of small classes, but also a considerable number of untrained teachers. And the reorganization of schools on the Hadow plan has not proceeded far. According to statistics issued by the Board of Education, whereas in urban areas only 23 per cent. of the children were in unreorganized schools, the comparable figure of children in rural districts is 64 per cent.

From the point of view of formal education the creation of the reorganized senior school confers a signal benefit on the countryside. It gives the rural child school conditions in the matter of buildings, equipment, and staff which are as good as those in the towns and in some respects provides even superior conditions. The rural senior school has the advantage of standing in an ample demesne comprising grounds, playing fields, and a garden which often has the characteristics of a miniature home farm, carrying livestock ranging from rabbits and poultry to pigs and calves.

A survey of the provision of secondary schools both in town and country shows that in the country the provision of these schools is on a scale as good as, or

even slightly better than in the town. According to the Board of Education returns the numbers in secondary schools per 1,000 population were as follows :

Administrative Counties	12
County Boroughs	11.1
London	8.3

As a counterweight to these figures it has to be borne in mind that there is a higher proportion of other types of schools of higher education in London and the County Boroughs, but even after taking this into account the provision of higher education in the counties is favourable compared with London.

Taking another test, it is found that the percentage of public elementary school pupils admitted to secondary schools was as follows :

Administrative Counties	14.6
County Boroughs	13
London	10.2

and comparative gross expenditure per pupil was :

Administrative Counties (excluding London and Middlesex)	£28 10 0
County Boroughs (excluding the Metropolitan County Boroughs)	£27 16 0
Metropolitan Area	£33 19 0

A striking fact revealed by the statistics issued by the Board of Education is that so far as is known only 1.6 per cent. of secondary school leavers entered agriculture. One other feature of general interest is that in the countryside only a relatively small number continue their formal education after school by attendance at evening classes, technical schools, and farm institutes.

The Curriculum After 13+

E. G. Savage, C.B.

IN REVISING school curricula for adolescents, it might be profitable to consider some first principles and to start by asking ourselves what aims we seek to achieve by education generally. The yardstick which I suggest is one which is commonly used in the United States. Owing to enemy action I have been unable to lay my hands on the documents containing it, but as I have long carried it about in my mind and have often used it, I don't think there is much risk of my making anything more than verbal errors in setting it down here. Quite briefly, seven aims of education are set out :

- (1) Care of health and achievement of bodily fitness ;
- (2) Attainment of proficiency in the fundamental skills ;
- (3) Development of qualities making for worthy home membership ;
- (4) Development of qualities making for good citizenship ;
- (5) Inculcation of high ethical standards ;
- (6) Development of qualities to ensure a worthy use of leisure ;
- (7) Preparation for service to the community as an efficient economic unit, that is, vocational training.

(1) *Health*.—The fundamental necessity for health education need not be stressed in theory. How far our schools are, in fact, equipped with

the necessary rooms, playgrounds, playing-fields and apparatus is another matter. Parallel with the provision of facilities for adequate nutrition, medical inspection and physical exercises there should clearly be instruction appropriate to age in the simple rules of hygiene. From the point of view of achieving the desired end it does not very much matter, I think, whether the reasons are fully understood so long as good hygienic habits are inculcated and carried out.

(2) *Fundamental skills*.—The fundamental skills may be taken to mean the capacity to use the mother tongue, both in speech and in writing, and this in turn connotes the ability to read. Of almost equal importance is the capacity for making simple calculations which may come in the way of any citizen. (The Three R's we used to call them, and perhaps dismissed them rather too readily.) In our own country we have still much to learn in the use of the mother tongue. As Sir Philip Hartog wrote somewhere once : 'The French boy is taught to write French, and he does write it. The English boy is not taught to write English, and he doesn't write it.'

In addition to these basic skills we should include manual training, that is, in woodwork and if possible in metalwork for boys, and skill in domestic subjects for girls. It matters not whether you put them under this heading or

under a later one to which they very obviously do belong. The important point is that somewhere or other they should be introduced.

I should like to add to these fundamental skills another, which is the capacity to think clearly, but this, of course, is not a formal subject—it is something which ought to be aimed at, no matter with what subject we are dealing. It is fundamental, but difficult to achieve.

(3) *Home membership*.—Whatever else we may be, most of us for some time or another are part of a family circle, and there are several subjects which are of importance in this connection. For both boys and girls once again a knowledge of hygiene is important. Manual training for boys and, once again, domestic science for girls, make a claim. At some period during the educational process, girls, I suggest, should be given some sound teaching, with actual practice if possible, in what I will call mothercraft or child management. For a very large number of girls life consists of school, employment, and marriage, followed by motherhood. This last experience finds a very large proportion of our young women unprepared and largely ignorant. I do not think that the elementary schools, which, be it remembered, girls leave at 14+, are to blame for this educational failure. At that age, even if we extend it by a year, children are still too young for any instruction in this direction to be profitable. The secondary schools, where all should stay until at least 16 and some stay to 18+, have a better chance, though in fact they do not make much use of it. The claims of the examinations and other less fundamental aims crowd out instruction of this kind. In any case the vast mass of our population do not go through the secondary schools, and the solution of this particular problem, as of many others, lies probably in the establishment of day continuation schools, with which I will deal later.

(4) *Citizenship*.—Whatever else Fate may have in store for school children, they will, by the time they are 21 years of age, be responsible citizens, charged with the privilege and duty of making their selection of their rulers. They must therefore have an appreciation of the issues that are involved. They must be able

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to read the information purveyed by the Press intelligently and critically, even sometimes to develop the capacity for news resistance. In addition to being able to think clearly on these subjects, they must have a knowledge of some facts, and perhaps the primary facts about which they should be certain is the place of our state in time and in space—in other words, some knowledge of history and of geography. Every child should have a general outline of the story of the race, its heroes, the struggles, achievements and failures of its forbears. The most important period of history for the citizen of to-day is the history of the *next twenty years*, which he is helping to weave, and in order that he may play his part worthily in the process, the most important of the back history is that which has a bearing on current affairs. I cannot regard as satisfactory any history syllabus which ends at 1832 or 1878, or even in 1914. In no subject is the selection of material more important than in history, and, if we stick simply to fundamentals, a good deal of the earlier history has no particular bearing on current affairs. The first claim of

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history is for its contribution to civic membership, and only of secondary importance is that side of history which contributes to the profitable enjoyment of leisure and enjoyment of the heritage of the past.

Geography, again, is a subject in which there is frequently all too little selection. For the ordinary boy and girl scientific geography is of nothing like such importance as geography dealing with human activities and its effects on our economic life. ('They know all about those jolly little isobars but put Berlin in the Adriatic' as a History master once ruefully remarked.)

An elementary acquaintance with the phenomena of nature and the achievements of mankind in harnessing the powers of nature to his own purposes—in other words, an elementary acquaintance with the physical and biological sciences—also has its part to play in this connection.

Armed with a sufficient knowledge of history and geography, the boy and girl may be in a position to appreciate some of the main problems of the day and even to make his own

investigations. I should like to describe the whole of this part of the curriculum as 'Social Studies'.

(5) *Ethical standards*.—Instruction in religious knowledge obviously gives direct opportunity for inculcating ethical standards, but the achievement of this aim depends at least as much, if not more, upon everything that goes on in the school. Many subjects can increase a child's awareness of decent standards of conduct between man and man, and, of course, the whole school corporate life is a matter of supreme importance in this connection.

(6) *Use of leisure*.—The list of subjects which might conceivably be available under this heading is legion. Obviously art and music in all their various forms have a very high claim to inclusion. Literature and its appreciation has almost as big a claim, and I should like to urge here also the value of science, particularly those branches of science which can be studied out of doors : botany, some aspects of zoology and geology.

(7) *Vocational training*.—If there are a large number of subjects which are available for leisure, there is an even larger list which may be useful in enabling the boy or girl subsequently to serve the community and, in return, to receive sustenance from it. What they are will depend upon what the boy or girl intends to be or is likely to have to be. Mathematics, science, modern languages, Latin (the language of Roman law) for potential lawyers, the language of engineering, that is to say, engineering drawing, workshop practice, office arts such as typewriting and shorthand—all of these may have a place for different individuals.

THERE are two points to be made in connection with the foregoing. In the first place, having set down the list of aims and the subjects which seem likely to be valuable in the achievement of the aim, we are presented with a list simply of subjects. It is important to emphasize that the next step is to see that our method of treating those subjects does in fact achieve the aim. In these days of specialization a great many teachers are, I fear, inclined to set what may be called the 'interests' of the subject at least on an equal footing with the interests of the child. It is therefore

of supreme importance that teachers of individual subjects should use their subjects consciously to achieve certain aims. It is perhaps worth while selecting a few subjects by way of illustrating the point.

English must be taught first of all as a tool, and secondly for its value in the profitable use of leisure. This suggests exercises in writing and in speaking, and the opportunity for plenty of reading. I must emphasize 'plenty', for, largely as a result of the way in which examinations have tended in recent years, much energy has been wasted and much interest has been lost through the minute analysis of one or two works in order that certain curious examination questions may be answered. The result has often been to give a very distorted view of what is meant by English literature. ('Nay! Ah never did Macbeth at school. T'were t'other one', as a North Country lad was heard to say.) Similarly, I think that many of our science courses have now become reduced to very bare bones indeed, as a result of which boys learn how to deal with about fifteen or twenty arithmetical problems in physics, some of which they can count upon finding in an examination paper. In the result they do get a credit, but they have made very little progress in the spirit of the subject and still less do they appreciate the contribution which science has to make to our civilization, and to our personal interest in life.

Mathematics, it will be observed, appears partly as a tool and partly as of possible value as an element in vocational training. The amount of mathematics required by the ordinary citizen in his daily life is extremely small, and I wonder whether we do not, in fact, in our schools, force a large number of children, especially girls, through courses of mathematics which are not any use to them but which are a positive pain during the period of their infliction. The teaching of mathematics has, in these days, enormously improved, and as a result of the improvement in technique one might hope that mathematics teachers will be able to get through the minimum necessary in shorter time, and so release the time for other subjects. My observation suggests that in too many instances it merely results in the expert teacher trying

to get yet more mathematics into the curriculum. The dividend arising from improved technique, in fact, goes to the 'subject' and not to the pupil.

The second point is that the seven aims which I have set down result in the entire omission of the classics, except that Latin appears as a possible subject amongst those of importance in vocational training for the learned professions. I know that this runs counter to tradition or, as I prefer to call it, convention, or to 'vested ideas'. There was a time when Latin was an essential ingredient of the curriculum because of its vocational value. That time has long passed, and I cannot help regarding the persistence of Latin for every boy in some schools as being purely a vestigial phenomenon. If some knowledge of the classics is essential and if, as may very properly be done, a study of the classics is pursued because of its value for those with leisure to pursue it, then I can never understand why Greek should not be the first language and, indeed, the only one of the classical languages chosen, if there is only time for one. I think many schools would do well to advertise the fact that they don't pretend to offer an education in which classics play an important part, and to limit the teaching of Latin to those boys and girls at the top of the school who must take it in order to obtain entrance into one of the older universities. (I live in hopes of the day when any two modern languages will be regarded as a sufficient passport to those ancient seats of learning.)

At all events, whether readers agree or disagree with my very controversial comments on the position of subjects in the curricula, I think they may agree that some such yardstick as I have discussed is valuable in checking up the soundness of a curriculum and in testing the value of the constituent subjects—as *they are being taught*.

ONE matter of very general importance remains to be discussed briefly. It is obvious that the vast bulk of our population will continue to leave school at 15 for some years to come, and thereafter, under present arrangements, except for the few who go to voluntary classes in the evenings, their formal

education stops. A few years later we find them living in bookless homes and engaged in occupations which make no demands on their intelligence, and we find many of them in a state of mind which is 'illiterate' in a figurative, if not in a literal sense. Some time ago I used to see the results of some worked tests by young men of around the age of 20. One of them was based upon a map of the world on Mercator's projection, on which the candidate was invited to write in the names of any parts of it which he recognized as being part of the British Empire. A simple enough question for an intelligent citizen of our democracy. I recall two answers very vividly; the first was: 'I do not know any of them.' Doubtless, except for spelling, the answer was correct, but he got no marks! In the other, across China, the candidate had written: 'Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex' from top to bottom in that order, and one could see the dim glimmerings of what he once knew. It is, however, not easy to fathom why he should have written the word 'Italy' across Madagascar.

The question is, what are we to do about it? and the answer lies in the general thesis that 15 is too early for the educational process to be stopped and that it is an urgent necessity that we should establish day continuation schools from the school leaving age up to the age of 18. There are very many young folk who are, for hereditary or other reasons, not attracted by the pabulum of the schools. At best a school is something of a cloister, and around the age of 13, 14 or 15 many young people want to be up and doing. All too often there are family reasons why he or she should contribute something to the common family fund. Whatever the reason, they want to be away. In many cases contact with industry and the pursuit of a gainful occupation open their eyes to the value of the things with which they were not very contented whilst at school. Such young folk, being brought back for say one day a week into the educational system, would bring with them a new desire and a new stimulus to learn, which should make even one day a week a most valuable contribution to their make-up, as wage-earners and as citizens, and as the prospective parents of the next generation.



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ENGLISH NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Bulletin No. I

March 1942

H. G. STEAD, Organizing Secretary,

St. Ermyn's, Ashover, Derbyshire

THESE are the first of a new series of Notes for members of the E.N.E.F. It is hoped that through them a close control will be maintained between Headquarters and members and that it will be possible for the Notes to reach every member.

This can be stated in many ways, but in general terms, the English N.E.F. is a group of people who are working to achieve, and to carry into effect, a conception of

Our Aim education adequate to the needs and possibilities of modern man in a modern society. There are, I know, two views on the question of the extension of the membership of the Fellowship. There are those who think that quality of membership is of far greater importance than quantity; and there are those who wish to see a far greater membership. These two points of view are not incompatible. If the views we hold are to be implemented, it is necessary that they should be the views not of an élite, but of a growing and extending majority of educationists. Unless there is an increase in the number of those subscribing to our views we are largely spending our time in preaching to the converted. The present moment, in spite of financial and other difficulties, is an appropriate one in which to endeavour to extend our activities. For, on the one hand, there is need to maintain our faith and to cause our own light to burn more brightly, and on the other hand, there is a ferment in the educational world which gives us a non-recurring opportunity for advance.

The E.N.E.F. holds a unique position in the educational world of this country to-day, for it is the only group directly concerned with the whole field of education, irrespective of types of schools or subjects taught. The Elementary, Secondary, Technical, Public and Private School and University teachers have

their own associations, each rightly concerned with its own peculiar problems. Teachers of mathematics, science, classics, civics etc., etc., all have organizations. But the N.E.F. is an all-embracing Fellowship. It has a place for each; in fact it cannot properly fulfil its functions unless each fills his place in an integrated whole. Now that more and more people are becoming aware of the deficiencies in our education we have an ever increasing opportunity to extend our membership and to co-ordinate effort. We want the whole of the workers in the field to become the élite. The degree to which we achieve this will be a measure of the degree to which we can implement our views.

But much has to be done. Up and down the country, associations and groups of people are discussing problems of reconstruction—Educational Bodies, Trade Unions, Political Parties, Women's Institutes, Co-operative Guilds and many others. There is, however, a woeful lack of co-ordination of this effort, and it is here that one of the tasks of the E.N.E.F. is to be found. Is it not possible to determine upon which points there are agreement and put a united effort behind the achievement of these, and also to determine the points of divergence and through further study and thought, attempt to reconcile them?

Up and down the country a vast amount of research and experimental work is being carried out. This is being done in Education Depart-

Research Work departments of Universities, in Training Colleges, and in schools of all types. Much

of this work is repeated because a record of what has been done is not available. In every area there are investigations awaiting workers and experimental work which needs doing. What are the trends of new educational provision in the field? What are the social

origins of the present organization and curricula? What is the relation between techniques and activities? What of the transfer examination? At what age are children mature enough to acquire with a minimum of effort but a maximum of efficiency, certain skills? How can the Junior School be based upon activity? What can be done to foster good relationships with parents and industrialists? The list could be extended indefinitely, and while some problems are common to all areas, there will be some areas with problems peculiar to themselves. Here is another task for members of the E.N.E.F. The education for which we stand must be rooted in experiment and research and not laid down dogmatically from above.

Mr. David Jordan, of 20 Dorchester Avenue, Palmers Green, N.13, has kindly agreed to begin the task of co-ordination in this field. Will any member who is studying any particular problem, or carrying out any piece of experimental or research work, please write to him at the above address? (Will groups please do the same?) He should be informed of the investigation, research, or experiment undertaken and be sent periodic progress reports. So too, if anyone desiring to undertake any work, would ask him what is most urgently necessary, he would be willing to advise upon points awaiting investigation.

It is hoped that one result of this will be that before long it will be possible to publish a small booklet recording where experiments are in progress, in order that those desirous of either conducting similar experiments, or of seeing the results achieved, will know where to go for reliable evidence. In this way it should be possible for every member to play an active part in the forward march of the principles for which we stand. Further, here is a field the cultivation of which may do much to help young teachers when they come into the Schools. For if they can be put into touch with progressive people, and be shown that there is a job waiting for them to do, they will retain their forward-looking attitude. To enlist these young people in our ranks is vital if we are to remain dynamic. I hope that every member will strive to make this service effective and worth while.

A good group has been formed at Norwich, thanks mainly to the efforts of Mrs. Clark (Miss Coxon). The Officers of this Group and

the work they have undertaken is given below. There is a possibility of the formation of other groups in the areas listed below. Opposite each place is given the name of a member willing to help in the formation of a group. The success of our research depends largely on the possibility of it being done in dissimilar areas in order that it may be checked and tested. The first essential for the formation of a group is a few interested people and a definite scheme of activities. Some notes have been drawn up on this subject and will be sent to those interested (and it is hoped that that means every member) upon application to the Organizing Secretary. The country should be covered with a network of groups and each group should be the spear-head of educational advance in its area. I hope that before long there will be many active groups in existence. But it is better to start with small keen groups (meeting in members' houses in rotation) than to have larger and less enthusiastic ones. Only there must be *growth*, and this growth should be growth so that as many aspects of the educative life of the community as possible are represented. If each original member passes on his or her vision to others, this work will expand. Mr. Jordan, whose address is given above, will supply you with advice over matters needing research. Write to him and let us all begin that work which is necessary before we can say the educational soil 'is cleared of the weed, prepared for growth'.

Area	Member willing to assist
Ashby-de-la-Zouch	Dr. J. D. Chambers, Bens-Cliff, Tamworth Road, Ashby-de-la-Zouch
Derby	Miss M. Black, 30 Devonshire Avenue, Allestree, Derby
Exeter	Miss I. H. Bassom, 23 New North Road, Exeter
Luton	Captain Lothian Small, 122 Ashcroft Road, Luton
Norwich	Miss H. Coxon, The Education Offices, City Hall, Norwich

<i>Area</i>	<i>Member willing to assist</i>
Northampton	Miss M. Millburn, Calderfield, St. George's Avenue, North- ampton
Pontypool	Mr. C. H. Hamilton, 44 Fountain Road, Pontymode, Pontypool, Mons.

New Address Will every member note the new address of the English New Education Fellowship (printed at the head of this Bulletin).

Will all members please pay subscriptions promptly and make them as high as possible in these hard times. If the **Subscriptions** Fellowship is to do the work which *must* be done *now* if it is to be effective, pressing financial needs must be met. Postage expended upon 'reminders' unnecessarily depletes our funds.

New Members Can you find any people interested in our work? If so, try to enrol them as members.

It is hoped that it will be possible to hold a Conference at Ripon Training College from April 13th to 17th inclusive. Ripon is a fine old city, and the College is

The Easter Conference beautifully situated. We have long promised our friends in the North a Conference in their own area, and it is hoped that all our members will make an effort to be present. Book the date *now*. It is hoped that the subject of the Conference will be 'Comparative Education', and that series of lectures will be given, dealing with the education of the U.S.A., U.S.S.R., Spain, Australia and China respectively, together with an introductory address on 'The Value of a Comparative Study of Education' and a final summing up. There will be one evening devoted to some form of social function. The lecturers will be experts in the field upon which they speak. It will be

seen that many of the suggestions put forward at the concluding session of the Easter Conference have been adopted, and any other suggestions will be welcomed. Details will be issued as soon as possible.

It may be possible in the summer to organize a Conference to which representatives of all bodies concerned in education could send representatives. The **The Summer Conference** object of such a Conference would be to determine the measure of agreement that exists as to the bases of educational reconstruction. It is suggested that the programme should be something as follows :

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF EDUCATION

(Topics for Discussion)

- (1) *The needs of the Pre-School Child*
 - (a) Crèches
 - (b) Ante- and Post-Natal Clinics
 - (c) Education for Parenthood
- (2) *The needs of the School Child*
 - (a) Nutriment and Physical Health
 - (b) Organization
 - (c) Primary Education
 - (d) Post-Primary Education
- (3) *The needs of Youth*
 - (a) Nutrition and Physical Health
 - (b) Transition to work—the educative aspect of work
 - (c) Social and Communal Activities
- (4) *Transition to Adulthood*
Where are the bridgeheads?
- (5) *Adult Education*
 - (a) Training for professions, including Teaching
 - (b) Research Work
 - (c) Travel, Holidays and Cultural Activities

The Conference is pictured as functioning something like this. It would be open to representatives of all bodies interested in the question of educational reconstruction, and would last for, say, five days. The first two days would be devoted to the major divisions of the field as indicated in the list of topics (which are only suggestions). For the next

two days, the Conference would divide into five Commissions, each of which would appoint its own Chairman and Secretary and deal with one branch in more detail and make agreed recommendations. On the evening of the fourth day, a meeting of Chairmen and Secretaries would be held to co-ordinate these recommendations. There would be a final session on the morning of the fifth day to receive and consider these recommendations. There would, of course, be the right to enter reservations by any one wishing to do so. The idea is to see what measure of agreement can be arrived at and what are the points still needing clarification.

Members are invited to send comments and suggestions about this proposal. The Conference would be held at Oxford if accommodation could be secured there; otherwise it would be at some accessible and central place.

A well attended meeting was held on December 19th, 1941, to inaugurate a branch of the E.N.E.F. at Norwich. Mr. A. Corlett (member of the Education Committee) presided and the meeting was addressed by Dr. H. G. Stead, of Chesterfield, and Mrs. Clark (Miss Coxon), who had done the preliminary work in the area. It was unanimously agreed to form a group, and the following officers were elected:

The Norwich Group

Chairman: Mr. A. Ryrie (Secretary, J. & J. Colman's Ltd., Norwich).

Educative Committee: Misses E. Dutton and C. A. Pratt; Messrs. R. W. Jackson, N. Jarvis and E. W. Woodhead.

Honorary Secretary: Miss H. Coxon, The Education Dept., The City Hall, Norwich.

A further meeting of intending members was held on January 23rd, 1942, when proposals were discussed for the extension of the Fellowship especially with regard to study and discussion groups.

The following discussion groups have been arranged:

(a) *Adult Education*

(Convener: Mr. M. Jarvis, Avenue Road Senior Boys' School, Norwich).

(b) *Education in U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and Germany*

(Convener: Miss K. Seggar, Larkman Lane Infants School, Norwich).

(c) *Education and Industry*

(Convener: Mr. O. Tusting, Managing Director, Builders Direct Supply Company Ltd., Norwich).

The Fellowship is grateful to Mrs. Clark for her efforts on its behalf, and to all those who have undertaken work for it in Norwich. It is hoped that this group will flourish and that it will, at some date, be able to act as Hosts to an E.N.E.F. Conference in Norwich.

Letters to the Editor

*Department of Education,
University College,
Aberystwyth.*

DEAR MADAM,

With reference to the article by Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp on the Training of Teachers (*The New Era*, January), these are the views of a university tutor in education who happened to be a teacher in several types of schools and a headmaster before turning into educational theorist.

1. I agree with the assumptions in the opening paragraphs and (very strongly) that training departments should be in close touch with school conditions. We should stimulate students to seek more satisfactory school conditions but help them to make best use of orthodox conditions.

2. But, teacher-training is specialized work needing intimate knowledge of schools and children,

and of educational history, theory and psychology (particularly experimental). Neither practitioners nor theorists as such can train teachers properly. The theorists evolve half-baked formulæ which will work only in their own carefully specified environment (cf. Rousseau, A. S. Neill, etc.), while the practitioners carry on, by tradition, methods found to work in some particular conditions without explicitly realizing why they work, and without being able therefore to generalize and carry over to changed conditions what permanent value the methods may embody. They tend to be mechanics and not scientists. Or, they may be artists whose success depends upon some exceptional personal traits which again cannot be generalized and communicated to ordinary students.

3. Hence, the essential criteria for the appointment of professors and senior tutors in training

departments should be successful and varied teaching practice (including experience in elementary education) together with wide knowledge of educational theory and general psychology. The actual criterion at the moment seems to be high academic honours in any subject not connected with education. Nothing can be done about this until appointing bodies are really interested in education and *conscious* of the requirements of teacher-training. Hence the position seems rather hopeless since intelligent candidates for high educational office concentrate on academic honours and eschew the contamination of practice (thereby revealing wisdom).

4. We shall not get sufficient good students to train until teaching ranks at least equal in *social prestige* (not necessarily in money emoluments) with medicine, law, and the higher grades of civil service or commerce. I am not sure what the training departments can do about this.

5. If training department staffs are to 'develop and circulate new ideas and train those already teaching as well as students', then they cannot at the same time do part-time teaching work in schools. Development and circulation of new ideas needs continuity of work and thought, and freedom from the inevitable restrictions of normal school routine. (These tend to prevent adequate experiments.)

6. Students should be introduced to educational philosophy, theory, history, and psychology, always through the discussion of *concrete* teaching and educational problems. But this is possible only if the tutors know what are concrete educational problems—the question of training department personnel again.

7. One way of developing satisfactory qualities in students may be by making them *explicitly conscious* of such qualities: (a) by showing samples of good teaching; (b) by encouraging them to answer such questions as:

- What is the good of education, and of teaching?
- What is the good of this particular piece of work being done now?
- What methods are possible in this particular case?
- Which is the most efficient?
- By what principle and by what tests justify the choice?

Such questions asked in relation to specific pieces of work encourage students who are at all serious to seek for some functional educational theory, and they raise the problem of tests and measurements in a practical way. The business of the tutor is then to guide the search.

To answer in detail the questions raised in the article about the kind of psychology of most use to practising teachers; how children learn, and why they learn; how deal with faults in pupils; how combine individual treatment with class teaching, would need a full-sized book. I have attempted recently to answer some at least of these questions, with what success remains to be seen.¹

A. Pinsent

¹ *Principles of Teaching Method.* (Harrap. 1941.)

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*Cambridge Training College for Women,
Cambridge.*

DEAR MADAM,

The interesting article on the training of teachers by E. L. Herbert and Brunsdon Yapp in the January issue of *The New Era* will be welcomed by all who are concerned, directly or indirectly, with the training of teachers for secondary schools. There are, however, several points in it which should not pass unchallenged.

The writers of the article are ready to admit that a training course may lessen the number of mistakes which a beginner in teaching is apt to make, they therefore deem training to be desirable, though not essential. When we consider that the most frequent victims of these mistakes are the pupils, then surely any course which enables the beginner to save himself from many errors is not only desirable, but necessary. Why should we tolerate the 'muddling through' of the unskilled, when a certain degree of efficiency can be secured by adequate preparation?

Further, it is stated in the article that recruitment to the profession is not in the hands of the training departments, but that is true only of the four-year grant-earning students. All training departments have some one-year students, graduates who take a one-year course; moreover there are a number of women's colleges for one-year students only. These graduates are selected by the training authorities, though it must be admitted that the field is not unlimited and that human judgment is not infallible.

Some hard things are said in the article of lecturers in education, 'who talk and write as if they had never set foot in a classroom'. This seems an unfair generalization, seeing that the great majority have had good teaching experience and are ready to give demonstration lessons and eagerly seize the chance of handling a class. If, therefore, the ideas which these lecturers give to their students fill the teachers with derision, may it not be that it is the teachers who are out of touch with reality, with methods and syllabuses more modern and living than their own? The lack of contact between the teachers and the lecturers or tutors may not be entirely the fault of the latter. Teachers are busy people, the tutors' entry into the secondary school is by courtesy only, the latter cannot force themselves on those who have full time-tables and who too often are

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unconsciously antagonistic in their attitude to the training college or department's staff. Moreover, conferences between the teachers and the tutors have been tried and yield but little fruit, social occasions bring about only a temporary rapprochement.

The suggestion of an interchange between the teachers and tutors, though an arresting one, would hardly seem to hold out much promise of success since teachers all too often appear to have but little interest in anything bordering on educational theory. Here perhaps the psychologist could help in elucidating the factors which make mutual understanding difficult.

It would be regrettable if your wide circle of readers, particularly overseas, were to accept the conclusions of the writers without hesitation and were to imagine that the university training departments and one-year colleges in this country are staffed by a group of mere vague theorists.

Yours faithfully,

H. Dent

*Gloucestershire Training College of
Domestic Science,
Gloucester.*

DEAR MADAM,

I read with great interest the article in the January number on the Training of Teachers, with its refreshing breaths of common sense. I would like, however, to comment on what is said under point 7: 'In view of the shortage of time, should not more attention be given to the actual problems of teaching,

at the expense of theories of education?' Although I do not necessarily disagree with this point, my experience does not bear out the statements that follow it. I must, however, say that I have taught students only in a training college, receiving girls fresh from school, not in a university training department.

The writers suggest that if the more intelligent students are given books to read they can be left to study them for themselves. Few students coming from school know how to use books to best advantage: their method generally is to quote chunks from them without really understanding what is meant. Few can make unaided a link between book knowledge and practical experience. It is doubtful whether studying for a university degree usually overcomes this difficulty for students. Tutorial and discussion classes are more helpful than lectures, but 'an occasional tutorial class' is not sufficient, because the value depends upon personal knowledge of the student and her difficulties, and continuity is necessary. 'Unintelligent ones will get little profit from learned discussions anyway'—true, but the discussion need not be learned. The unintelligent, more than the intelligent, need the stimulus of shared ideas, and the encouragement of being helped to clarify muddled ones.

If lectures and discussions merely inflate students with hot air—and it must be confessed they sometimes do—then it is better to substitute practical help. Yet if at the present time we neglect to lead students to the discovery of underlying principles, and to open their eyes to the tremendous social problems confronting us, they will find it hard to adapt themselves to the conflicts and changes of the period of destruction and reconstruction in which they will begin their professional life.

Margaret Diggle

*Community Centre,
Feilding, New Zealand.*

DEAR MADAM,

My wife and I think you might like news of the first official Community Centre in New Zealand. We are employed by the Education Department, but have had a free hand to develop what we call *further* education, i.e. nursery education, parent education, and the usual adult work. If it fits in with your plans for *The New Era* I will write you some account of it as soon as I feel that we have really taken root. I am coming to believe that civilization needs a new form—a new mansion for the human spirit—something as completely related to life as the medieval church was, but related to this scientific age, and also serving as an antidote to it. This centre, in a town of 5,000 people, is related to the existing schools, it provides pre-school education, guidance, and parent education; draws upon the university, museums, and libraries; provides a platform for the discussion of affairs at home and abroad; and also provides a home for local societies: the British Music Society, Young Farmers' Club, and so on. I have been able to draw the teachers

into the centre by forming a branch of the N.E.F. It has worked. During the year just past we have had a very good group doing diagnostic work in reading and generally studying reading at all levels—particularly at their own adult levels. I want to see centres of this kind, uniting our present education in the small towns, teaching *creative* not descriptive sociology, getting on with the job of creating a culture fit for human beings. I am convinced we have failed in the past mainly because we have had schools for the immature and universities for the gifted, but nothing for the people but the 'education' of the press. Churches cannot cope with human intellect. What can we do quickly, cheaply, and effectively? It seems to me that the Community Centre idea might solve the problem in New Zealand.

Yours, etc.,

H. C. D. Somerset

Book Reviews

Medicine and Mankind. By Arnold Sorsby. (Faber and Faber, 1941. 12/6.)

This is a brilliant book, giving a clear, at times dramatic, sketch of medicine from the earliest times to the present day, with a foreshadowing of its true trend in the future. As Dr. Sorsby shows, medicine arising in the past from witchcraft and the medicine-man of the savage, becomes, though slowly and stumblingly, the servant and teacher of mankind. Through trial and error the right way of combating disease is being found, and medicine is learning and teaching the way of physical health for every sort and condition of man. The large field of mental health is untouched by Dr. Sorsby, though he appreciates the interplay between mind and body.

The book is intended for the layman, but though in the main it could be understood by any ordinary intelligent reader, in some places too much technical knowledge is taken for granted, making the book as a whole a little unequal. On the whole, however, Dr. Sorsby's treatment of a very wide and difficult subject is masterly and admirably lucid, and *Medicine and Mankind* will be found to be most interesting and stimulating to thought.

Myra Mackenzie

Sherman Thacher and His School. By L. M. Makepiece. (Yale University Press & Oxford University Press, 1941. \$3.00.)

The story of the life and work of a headmaster who has created a school that is in part the extension of his own personality, is always a valuable contribution to educational literature. This story of the life and work of Sherman Thacher, and his school among the orange groves of California, is such a contribution. It is a readable and pleasant piece of portraiture apart altogether from its value to educational thought. It makes particularly enjoyable reading because the growth and setting of this educational experiment are so different from anything to be found in these islands.

Sherman Thacher was an amateur fruit rancher who turned to teaching as a side line, but slowly found himself more deeply involved in his school and less in his trees. But school and farm were always inextricably mixed together to the advantage of both. The whole story is a most forceful argument for the educational value of the farm-school.

In the informal family pattern of school life on the ranch, horses received a prominent place. Thacher saw that in grooming, feeding and exercising horses boys gained a sense of responsibility. This introduced a colourful element into school life. 'Masquerading as sons of the West, cowboys extraordinary, they wore the largest sombreros they could keep on their heads, bright bandanas, and coloured or checkered shirts. Over the khaki or blue jeans would be heavy leather or sheepskin chaps, finished off with high-heeled cowboots and large Spanish spurs. Around the waist these desperadoes buckled a cartridge belt, replete with ammunition, and one or two pistols in holsters. To this might be added one or two rifles slung from the pommel. So complete was the customary armament that a knife carried between the teeth would have caused no astonishment.'

Thacher, though a vivid and forceful individual, had his limitations. He was a New England Puritan and some of his inhibitions found expression in his school. He never really understood or liked girls. Yet in a mood of generous experiment he opened his school to girls, but kept them so sedulously separate from the boys that the experiment in co-education came to an inglorious ending. There were other limitations, too, but all overshadowed by the health and strength of the school's creative life.

A good description of the school is given by Edward Everett Hale, an eminent Boston clergyman: 'You find there what is a thorough school and does the work of a thorough school; but from the first moment you feel you are in the surroundings of a large, even jolly, *al fresco* home. . . . Here is the training place for gentlemen such as might have been imagined by King David or some gentlemanly Arab sheik, or by a well-bred ranchman of to-day, or by Philip Sidney.' All teachers will draw strength and hope from the reading of the courageous life and struggles of this simple, in some ways almost commonplace, yet ever-striving American teacher.

B. A. Fletcher

Learning and Teaching in the Junior School. By Nancy Catty. (Methuen & Co., 1941. 5/-.)

The order in the title of this book is a clear indication of its aim. The emphasis in the modern junior school should be on learning, even on learning to learn, rather than on teaching.

Since the official reorganization of the schools which makes the break at 11, the juniors have at last been recognized as an independent age-group requiring special methods and curricula and not merely preparation for entrance to the senior school. This period is regarded by Miss Catty as vitally important and as transitional from the individual

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activities of infants to community life, and from the mastery of the Three R's to the beginning of the real study of which 7-11's are capable. Although the author advises a great deal of scope for the following and developing of a child's own interests, since 'it is better, both for the state and the individual, to rear happy carpenters than bored civil servants', the teacher is regarded very definitely as a director of studies, and much stress is laid on skill in guiding work. As the author says, 'especially for young children a great part of a teacher's work must necessarily consist in teaching them how to learn'. The book should prove a valuable help in reorganizing junior departments. Miss Catty has a thorough understanding of the needs of this age and illustrates her ideas with practical suggestions and specimen time-tables. These suggestions are grouped in three parts: entrants, middle years, and leavers.

In the entrants' section emphasis is laid on the necessity of a good grasp of English, oral and written. Formal arithmetic could and should be left to the nine-year-olds. Here begin the habits of 'finding out' and of using books of reference. Although children are allowed to work at their own pace, every child is shown and taught to understand a syllabus of work to be covered in a given time. Some experienced teachers may feel that Miss Catty's expectations of the work of the entrants is occasionally rather high, e.g. in the calling in of experts to help in building projects. Children of 7-8 are usually still too self-sufficient to ask for outside help of this kind. The writing of book reviews and the consulting of such reviews might also interest an exceptional '7', but hardly a class as a whole. The work of the middle years is less detailed, as attainments and activities are largely the development of earlier work. Special stress is laid, however, on the need for sufficient outlet for the physical activity and stability characteristic of, and perhaps at their strongest during, this period. In the case of leavers the author points out that it is essential that the children understand they are preparing for future adventure. They should be encouraged to keep records of work expected of them and work done and, above all, to think and make decisions for themselves.

The general impression left by this book is that children thus educated will not only be fully prepared for work in the senior school but will also be better

equipped by their own habits of thought and action to face the many adjustments which post-war education will require, and that therefore in due time they will 'bring to the outside world the benefit of trained minds and accurate thought'.

G. E. Crook

New Methods versus Old in American Education: An Analysis and Summary of Recent Comparative Studies, by the Informal Committee appointed by the Progressive Education Association. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, 1941.)

This analysis is short, concise and well balanced, striving to set against the traditional background the newer trends in education, and thereby modifying their extravagances. Both old and new have their contributions to make; to the English reader, this stressing of the value of the traditional creates a bond between us and our progressing allies; a bond that is often broken by our rejection of what we consider, not always rightly, to be the too ephemeral nature of American experiments. The analysis of actual programmes in given schools, which forms the greater part of this short work, gives to the practising teacher just those illustrations which are necessary to give point to the generalizations made in the first part of the pamphlet.

At this juncture in our educational life these generalizations, well documented by example as they are, are worth remembering. The Committee urges that it is not enough to reform *what* is taught in schools; we must also consider more and more *how* things can be taught, so that the child may carry forward his seeking, questing attitude into adult life. They remind us that wrong methods of learning may easily check that eager process of development. To maintain that 'joy of learning' the child's interests must be consulted; he must be taught not merely passively to acquire knowledge but actively to use that knowledge in the solution of problems which interest him. His social problems are as urgent as his intellectual, hence an activity programme gives him opportunity to learn how to work with others and solve not merely the problem set by the project, but the deeper problems of his relation with others.

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Emphasis is laid, and rightly laid, on the necessity to strike a balance between the traditional skills which each well-educated person should possess, such as reading, spelling etc., and the opportunity through activity for the pupil to use these skills.

The Committee state that 'many schools which one considered progressive plan their programmes of work so that part of the time is spent in "activities" and part is used in giving special instruction in separate subjects, such as history, reading, or arithmetic . . . In many progressive schools the proportion of time spent in this kind of specialized instruction is 25 per cent., while for the conventional schools the figure would be nearer 70 per cent.' This is a timely reminder that we should see to it in the formulation of reformed curricula that time is given for the acquirement of such skills, as well as time for their use in problem solving. For the difficulty of planning a new curriculum is partly one of the apportionment of time and it is interesting to read evidence to support the remark that 'To many it is surprising, if not incredible, that a school can and is able to halve the time spent on drill exercises (here understood as these skills) and still maintain the scholastic standard of the pupils.' The book raises the allied question of the ages at which such skills should be taught, and gives much evidence to show how a certain economy of time has been gained by beginning such a skill at a later age than is normally accepted.

The vexed question of the exact meaning given in the schools to the term 'activity' is also discussed at some length and with it the corollary of how to test progress in such activities. The evaluation of achievement here is difficult, the Committee confess, but here again they show the lines on which, in America, educationists are striving to obtain measurements of such educational processes. But whether the educationists have as yet found adequate measurements of progress or not, the Committee concludes that 'while the children in the new schools are learning about as much of ordinary school subjects as the children in the conventional schools, they are in addition learning other things which children in the conventional schools are learning less well. The new education helps pupils to go to sources of information when they need them, to organize the knowledge they acquire, and then to apply it to the problems which face them. If the children can be taught to solve problems in a rational and scientific way, a tendency may grow in our society to depend upon knowledge rather than prejudices and tradition in the settling of controversial issues. A small change of attitude in this direction might have very profound effects on the health, wealth, and happiness of the nation.' A tentative but inspiring comment on the value of progressive education.

P. Doyle

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The Young Child in War Time

Dorothy Burlingham and Anna Freud

THE care and education of young children should not take second place in war-time and should not be reduced to a war-restricted level. Adults can live under emergency conditions, and, if necessary, on emergency rations. But the situation in the decisive years of bodily and mental development is entirely different. It has already been recognized (and provision has been made accordingly) that the lack of essential foods, vitamins, etc., in early childhood will cause lasting bodily malformation in later years, even if the harmful consequences are not immediately apparent. What is not yet generally recognized is that the same is true for the mental development of the child. Whenever certain essential needs are not fulfilled, lasting psychological malformations will be the consequence ; these

essential elements are the need for personal attachment, for emotional stability, and for permanency of educational influence. The following pages show how we have set out to provide these essentials.

The first house of the Hampstead Nurseries was opened during the London blitz in premises provided by a Swedish Committee with the financial help of English friends and contributors. After the first three months this 'Children's Rest Centre' was taken over and the two further houses started and supported by the American organization Foster Parents' Plan for War Children. With the outbreak of war in America this very generous support has had to be restricted in some measure so that at the present moment the Nurseries are attempting to raise a third of their budget again in

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England. These Nurseries consist of three houses :

- 5 Netherhall Gardens, London, N.W.3, a *large residential nursery* for babies and young children (50 children) ;
- 13 Wedderburn Road, London, N.W.3, a *day nursery* run for the children from the residential nursery and some outsiders ;
- Newbarn, Lindsell, near Chelmsford, Essex, a *country house* for evacuated London children from 3-6 years (30 children).

The Nurseries now look after 80 resident children from the age of 10 days to 6 years and 40 outside children who receive help, partly through attendance at the day nursery, partly through gifts of food, clothing, and some general supervision. The Nurseries further give lodging and paid work to mothers while they nurse their own babies and extend hospitality to the parents of all children.

The staff consists of highly-trained workers in the field of medicine, psychology, education, nursing, and domestic science, besides 20 girls who receive training in the various departments. Most of the trained workers are refugees from the continent who have done specialized work in their own countries.

The actual period of time covered by this record is $14\frac{1}{2}$ months, from the middle of December, 1940, to the end of February, 1942. The number of children dealt with altogether is 138 ; 103 resident and 35 non-resident ; 50 of them have lived with us for more than six months, 20 for a year or more. These numbers will not seem very impressive to larger organizations, but so far as the war experiences of the children, their family circumstances, and their reactions to the war are concerned, the nursery probably presents a fair average of the circumstances met with in other establishments. Larger numbers of children would multiply facts ; they might detract from the intensity of observation what they add in extensiveness.

War conditions, through the inevitable breaking-up of family life, deprive children of the natural background for their emotional and mental development. The present generation of children has therefore little chance to build up their future psychological health and normality which will be needed for the recon-

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struction of the world after the war. To counteract these deficiencies, war-time care of children has to be more elaborate and more carefully thought out than in ordinary times of peace.

On the basis of these convictions our efforts are directed towards four main ends :

- (1) *To repair* damage already caused by war conditions to the bodily and mental health of children. We therefore accept children who have suffered through bombing, shelter sleeping, indiscriminate evacuation, and billeting. We try to serve, on the one hand, as a convalescent home, and, on the other, whenever necessary, as a home for problem children.
- (2) *To prevent* further harm from being done to the children. If small babies have to be separated from their mothers we try to keep them in comparative safety within easy reach of their families. We provide every facility for visiting so that the baby can develop an attachment for and knowledge of his mother and be prepared for a later return to normal family life. For the older children we make the necessary provision for ordinary peace-time education and, again, try to preserve the remnants of family attachments so far as possible.
- (3) *To do research* on the essential psychological needs of children ; to study their reactions to bombing, destruction, and early separation from their families ; to collect facts about the harmful consequences whenever their essential needs remain unsatisfied ; to observe the

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general influence of community life at an early age on their development.

- (4) To instruct people interested in the forms of education based on psychological knowledge of the child; and generally to work out a pattern of nursery life which can serve as a model for peace-time education in spite of the conditions of war.

Statistics

Age of resident children on admission :

1-4 weeks	7
1-6 months	24
6-12 months	7
1-2 years	25
2-3 years	17
3-5 years	17
5-10 years	6
					—
Total	103

Family situations of resident children

Occupation of Parents.—36 children have fathers in the Forces (Army, Navy, R.A.F.),

and the mother of 2 children is serving in the A.T.S.; the fathers of 25 children and the mothers of 27 are engaged on war work in munition factories, etc. 31 children still have fathers or mothers in civilian occupations, mostly labourers in the building and other trades, railway porters, lorry drivers, etc.; 6 mothers (of 11 children) are working in our own households; 4 of them at the same time nurse their own babies.

Illness of Parents.—The mothers of 4 children are bad cases of T.B. and will have to remain in hospital for many months. 1 father of 3 children is in hospital after a bad accident at work; 1 father, a discharged soldier, is in a mental hospital with an anxiety-state relating to the war; 1 mother suffers from an agoraphobia as a result of bombing and 1 mother is in an insane asylum with an acute psychosis following on the double shock of being bombed and losing her husband in an air raid.

Deaths of Parents.—The father of 1 child was killed in an accident; 1 father committed suicide during the war; 7 children (three families) lost their fathers as a direct result of bombing: 1 was killed while on duty as a fire-watcher, 1 while on duty as a stretcher-bearer, 1 while continuing work during an air raid. There are no children under our care who have lost both parents, though the one mentioned whose father is killed and his mother insane is for practical purposes an orphan.

War experiences

Bombing.—All the children who were already alive during the period of the 'blitz' (all those over 16 months of age) have gone through a long experience of air raids. With the younger babies the pregnancy of the mothers was in several cases affected. One pregnant mother was in a building which suffered a direct hit and she lost one of her older children in consequence of it. One mother was bombed on her way to the maternity hospital. Several mothers lay in maternity wards which had to be evacuated when the hospital received a hit. One mother had a bad fall in the black-out during her pregnancy. The homes of 15 children were actually destroyed or badly damaged by bombing. Two

little sisters were bombed three times in succession in houses to which they had been evacuated with their mother. During one of these experiences they were buried under the debris but remained unharmed. The blasting of houses, which was very widespread in the districts of London from which our children are drawn, is not counted in this survey.

Shelter Sleeping.—35 children were regular shelter-sleepers before they came to us. The shelters used were the Tilbury shelter (Commercial Road, E.1, where as many as 8,000 people slept during the blitz) and some of the Tube stations, as, for instance, Oxford Circus, Piccadilly Circus, and Paddington Station. Some of the pregnant mothers slept in these shelters up to the last night before the birth and returned to the same places 10 days later with their newborn babies. All other children slept in their own homes, either in Anderson shelters, on ground floors, in basements, or under the stairs.

Evacuation.—26 children had been evacuated before they came to us, 10 of them together with their mothers. These 8 mothers had felt certain in the beginning that it was their duty to leave London with their children. Afterwards they found it impossible to adhere to their original decision.

- 1 mother was torn between the conflicting duties of looking after the child and after her husband. She left London with her boy of 2 when he fell ill with bronchitis in their blasted house; she returned to London with the child when the husband had a breakdown and the doctor urged her to return.
- 1 mother returned so as not to leave her husband alone in London where he served as a permanent A.R.P. worker. She risked taking her delicate boy of 3 back to the shelters because she did not put too much trust in the faithfulness of her young husband.
- 1 mother with a newly-born baby had gone into service in the country as a means of evacuation. She found herself underpaid and overworked, lost her milk as a result of the situation and returned to London with the baby.
- 3 mothers with husbands in the army returned for war work to supplement the army allowance with their earnings.
- 1 mother of two children complained about an intolerable situation in the billet. Her children were considered a nuisance, had to be hushed and quieted continuously, and were not allowed in the garden even in the hottest summer

weather. The atmosphere of strife and quarrel became equally impossible for householder and billeted mother.

- 1 mother proved to be completely unbilleteable. She was ill with venereal disease, told everybody about it but omitted to say that she had been under hospital treatment and was therefore not as infectious as she led people to believe. She and her boy of 4 were turned out of one billet after the other.

The 16 unattended children returned home for a whole series of reasons :

- 5 billets were simply unsympathetic and either unwilling or unable to cope with the difficulties of the children.
- 4 billets had to be left because of outward circumstances, as, for instance, illness, operation, childbirth of the householder.
- 3 billets were unable to give the children proper conditions for healthy bodily development.
- 3 children were sent back because of temper tantrums, 1 of them because he became destructive in these states.
- 1 child changed hands several times because of bed-wetting.
- 1 child was sent home because of an abnormal state of 'fretting' for his mother.

In all these cases the permanent return of the children to their former homes proved impracticable, either because of the state of the buildings or because of the occupation of the mother. Return to London was therefore quickly followed by 're-evacuation', at least as far as Hampstead.

Discharged children :

108 children stayed permanently under our care as residents or non-residents; 30 children left us during the year 1941 at various times and for the following reasons :

- 9 were temporary cases, taken as an emergency measure while their mothers were in hospital either for childbirth or for operations; they returned home as soon as their mothers were able to do housework again.
- 7 were temporary cases, left with us while their mothers searched for private billets in the country; they were evacuated as soon as a billet was found.
- 2 were legally adopted and went to their new homes from us.
- 1 child was taken home after a week's trial because her mother was frightened about her abnormal state of homesickness. Her father had recently

entered a mental hospital as a borderline case so that her mother had added reason to be anxious about her.

3 children were taken to hospital in a severe state of illness. Two of them died subsequently.

8 cases (6 families) were failures in the sense that the relationship to the mother did not continue

on a smooth footing. After several months of friendly relations during which the children had done specially well, the mothers decided on the spur of the moment to 'make a change'. In one case this was due to the return of the father from the army; in one other case to jealousy over the possession of the baby.

Survey of the Food Situation

Gradual development of food restrictions

The 13 months of our existence are also the decisive months for changes in the food situation. During this period buying on the free market has given way almost completely to rationed supply and Government-controlled prices. This switch-over from one method of catering to another did not turn out to be as difficult in practice as it sounds in theory. All the changes were gradual and there was always time to get fully used to one stage of development before the next one was reached.¹

Preferential treatment for children under 5

Compared with the more difficult food situation of single adults and of private households, a children's institution is distinctly favoured. Under a scheme of the Ministry of Health children under 2 receive cod liver oil, fruit juice and fruit purée (blackcurrant) free of charge. They have priority for obtaining certain essential foods and receive larger rations of others than adults. There even exists a priority scheme for supply of unrationed foods by which the Nursery benefits; this concerns articles like biscuits, cake and flour confectionery, cocoa powder and starch food powders.

Oranges: whenever they are on the market, children under 6 have priority in obtaining them.

Milk: children get 1 pint daily compared with 2 pints weekly for adult people.

Eggs: children get 4 times as many as adults; the actual number depends on the supplies.

The usual ration at the moment is 2½ per child per week.

Consequences for the Nursery diet

Cooking in a war nursery like ours has to adapt itself to certain unalterable facts. The diet will necessarily have to be restricted since certain kinds of food are not available. Other foods have to be stretched or replaced by artificial substitutes which were in peace-time banned from children's diets. Further kinds of food are still to be had but in comparison with peace-time are restricted as regards quantity and variety. In spite of all these facts it is perfectly possible to plan and to provide well-balanced, adequate and attractive meals. The weight chart attached to our Health Report proves that there is certainly no scarcity in nourishing food. The children eat with pleasure and there is so far no need to refuse them second, third, and even fourth helpings.

Specimen Menus

BREAKFAST

Porridge or corn flakes with milk and sugar; milk or cocoa. Buttered toast and bread. Honey or marmalade.

LUNCH

Vegetables (spinach or carrots or tomato sauce or peas) and potatoes. Twice weekly meat, sometimes fish. Sweet (either stewed apples or rhubarb with custard, sometimes tinned fruit with custard, blancmange, jelly with sponge cake or trifle).

HIGH TEA

Milk pudding (rice or semolina) with chocolate, or fruit juice; or vegetable soup or scrambled eggs (once weekly). Buttered toast and bread. Some milk or cocoa. Some apples or cake.

American Parcels

Certain foods which are either very difficult or impossible to obtain in England are still sent to the Nursery in parcels from America which arrive through the Foster Parents' Plan. These parcels mostly contain chocolate, sweets, dried fruit, marmalade, and jam. These foods are so precious that we rarely use them in the ordinary diet. They are kept for children in the

¹ *December, 1940* (opening).—Food rationing already introduced but concerns only butter, margarine, cooking fats, sugar, tea, bacon, meat. It is still easy to obtain supplies to stock the larder. Fresh and dried fruit, milk, cream, eggs, cereals, jams, honey, fish can be supplied whenever wanted.

January, 1941.—Cheese and jam are rationed.

June, 1941.—Eggs rationed. Chocolate disappears slowly.

September, 1941.—Milk rationing comes into operation. Cream and cream cheese have disappeared.

December, 1941.—Points rationing is introduced for tinned foods.

January, 1942.—Chocolate prices are officially controlled.

sickrooms, the only ones whose appetites need special tempting. And they are further given out to our non-resident children who lack the balanced diet of the Nursery and are for the most part badly undernourished.

Conclusions

There is, of course, a certain fallacy contained in the attempt to offset peace and war conditions in the feeding of our children. Most of the children who live in our Nursery have never known a proper diet in peace-time. A large proportion of our cases come from families where the budget did not allow much money for food, where full meals were rare, and where fish and chips, bread and margarine played a

large part in the feeding. In some instances this economic situation was complicated by neglect or inefficiency of the mother, as, for example, with one child, Richard L., who had never tasted solid, cooked food when he entered the Nursery at the age of nearly 2. His mother had found it simpler to give him nothing but a bottle several times a day.

For all children of this type, war and peace conditions are reversed as far as their food situation is concerned. They have lived under serious food restrictions at a time when there was plenty to be had, and they have entered into a world full of food for them at a time when the world around them has less than it has had before.

Medical Report

IT is still too early for official surveys to show whether the health of London children has been affected by war conditions or whether the provision made for them (preferential treatment in rationing, medical supervision in shelters, evacuation to the country) have proved sufficient to safeguard them against the worst dangers. Observations on a small scale like ours tend to lead to most conflicting impressions.

Sleep

Certain shelter-sleepers whom we admitted showed all the typical signs of restlessness at night, disturbed sleep, and pallor as a consequence of lack of fresh air, many hours spent underground, and continual interruption of sleep by the noise of trains. In contrast to those cases we admitted shelter-sleepers who looked rosy, healthy, well-rounded, and showed no disturbance of sleep though they had spent all the nights of their short lives (several weeks to 10 months) underground. From the observations made on our children we would conclude that the big East End shelters, in spite of their mass population, are less harmful in their effects on sleep itself than the tube stations with their noise of trains. Added to this is the fact that in the former children can be settled down to sleep at earlier hours. Also all the inhabitants there now sleep in bunks, whereas in the Tube the bunks provided are so narrow that mothers with small children invariably sleep on the stone floor of the platform.

Weight

The weight chart attached to this medical report shows that the state of nourishment of the children is not a direct result of food scarcity or food rationing. Their considerable gain in weight in their first month of Nursery life proves that they arrived in a state of undernourishment.¹ Their rations were the same at home as they are with us. But while the Nursery, as one part of its duties, plans proper meals on the basis of these rations, it seems impossible to do the same at home. Mothers who stay at home and live on the army allowance have time for cooking but little money to spend on food,

¹ Examples of gain in weight during the first month in
HAMPSTEAD NURSERY

	Entrance	End of the first Month	Gain
TODDLERS (1-2 years)			
Harvey . . .	22 lb. 4 oz.	23 lb. 5 oz.	1 lb. 1 oz.
Gloria L. . .	19 " 12 "	20 " 14 "	1 " 2 "
Kathleen . .	18 " 15 "	20 " 7 "	1 " 8 "
Peter . . .	19 " 12 "	21 " 4 "	1 " 8 "
Phyllis . . .	23 " 4 "	25 " 1 "	1 " 13 "
Carol . . .	20 " 11 "	22 " 11 "	2 " 0 "
Mary C. . .	31 " 0 "	33 " 11 "	2 " 11 "
CHILDREN (2-5 years)			
Pamela . . .	33 lb. 14 oz.	35 lb. 3 oz.	1 lb. 5 oz.
David M . . .	38 " 8 "	40 " 2 "	1 " 10 "
Sandra . . .	27 " 13 "	29 " 11 "	1 " 14 "
Rosie . . .	24 " 10 "	26 " 10 "	2 " 0 "
Pauline . . .	40 " 11 "	42 " 11 "	2 " 0 "
Charlie . . .	38 " 4 "	40 " 8 "	2 " 4 "
Roy . . .	31 " 14 "	34 " 2 "	2 " 4 "
Patrick . . .	30 " 6 "	33 " 7 "	3 " 1 "
Barbara C. (6 yrs. 4 mths.)	45 " 9 "	47 " 1 "	1 " 8 "
Connie (9 yrs. 8 mths.) . .	65 " 12 "	69 " 3 "	3 " 7 "

while mothers who go out to war work earn enough money but have little time to spend on shopping and cooking.

Respiratory diseases

Practically all the children of all age-groups who arrived last January and February had recently overcome attacks of bronchial pneumonia which we at the time ascribed to the unhygienic conditions in houses which had suffered from blast, where pipes had burst and where window-panes were mostly absent. To our regret a similar wave of influenzal pneumonia repeated itself this year though the children certainly lived under hygienic conditions. This time, of course, the illness may have been rendered worse by the aggregation of a large number of children of young age, an age which is especially susceptible to this disease. That age played the largest part is shown by the fact that, while all the babies got bronchitis and some developed pneumonia, the toddlers were affected in a much lesser degree and the bigger children (2-4) mostly escaped with simple colds.

Infection

Children's diseases, which had been the dread of war-time residential nurseries from the beginning, certainly did not come up to expectations. Two cases of mumps and a mild epidemic of scarlet fever were all we had to deal with during the year. There was certainly no aggravation of disease through war conditions, with the exception of impetigo which ran its course through our houses as it did through nearly all the war-time nurseries. In spite of all precautions, two-thirds of our bigger children were affected. This time it was the baby rooms which were exempt.

Spread of infection

Again, the spreading of infection occurred in a manner which is difficult to account for. The house which *seems* most exposed to the danger of illness being brought in from outside is Netherhall Gardens with its 50 children. There are no restrictions on visiting, fathers on leave come in from their army camps or billets; mothers, brothers, and sisters visit from the East End. Children are occasionally taken

home for weekends (though not to shelters). Numbers of interested visitors wander in and out. In spite of all these factors the only epidemics in Netherhall Gardens were impetigo in summer and the wave of 'flu around Christmas. The Country House, on the other hand, which is most isolated and through difficulties of transport only receives visitors on given days, had mumps and scarlet fever which we were unable to trace to their sources. The strictness of visiting rules seems to bear little relation to the occurrence of illness.

Vermin

There is some fight against lice going on continuously. They are brought in partly by day-children and partly by visiting mothers. This is hardly due to war conditions though it may be slightly aggravated by communal shelter sleeping.

Medical Treatment

A medical inspection of the children is carried out daily; weights are taken weekly, or with the bigger children monthly. Visiting and day-children are inspected by the doctor or the sick-nurse before mixing with the others.

All medical treatment is given in the house. The cases of mumps and scarlet fever were not sent to hospital but nursed in a ward of the Country House which lent itself to isolation. Only the three worst cases of baby pneumonia had to be sent to hospital.

All children (except babies) are inoculated against diphtheria.

Sunray treatment is given to children with rickets, with skin troubles, and to all otherwise in need of it.

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Survey of Psychological Reactions

THE figures given in the previous surveys show that all our bigger children have had their fair share of war experiences. All of them have witnessed the air raids either in London or in the provinces. A large percentage of them has seen their houses destroyed or damaged. All of them have seen their family life dissolved, whether by separation from or by death of the father. All of them are separated from their mothers and have entered

community life at an age which is not usually considered ripe for it. The questions arise : what part these experiences play in the psychological life of the individual child, how far the child acquires intellectual understanding of what is going on around him, how he reacts emotionally, how far his anxiety is aroused, and what normal or abnormal outlets he will find to deal with these experiences which are thrust on him.

The Child's Understanding of the Situation

IT can be safely said that all the children who were over 2 years at the time of the London blitz have acquired knowledge of the significance of air raids. They all recognize the noise of flying aeroplanes ; they distinguish vaguely between the sounds of falling bombs and anti-aircraft guns. They realize that houses will fall down when bombed and that people are often killed or hurt in falling houses. They know that fires can be started by incendiaries and that roads are often blocked as a result of bombing. They fully understand the significance of taking shelter. Some children who have lived in deep shelters will even judge the safety of a shelter according to its depth under the earth. The necessity to make them familiar with their gas masks may give them some ideas about a gas attack, though we have never met a child for whom this particular danger had any real meaning.

The children seem to have no difficulty in understanding what it means when their fathers join the Forces. We even overhear talk between the children where they compare their fathers' military ranks and duties. A child, for instance, with his father in the navy or air force will be offended if somebody by mistake refers to the father as being 'in the army'. As far as the reasoning processes of the child are concerned the absence of the father seems to be accounted for in this manner.

Children are similarly ready to take in knowledge about the various occupations of their mothers, though the constant change of occupation makes this slightly more difficult.

Mothers of three-year-olds will change backwards and forwards between the occupations of railway porter, factory worker, bus conductor, milk-cart driver, etc. They will visit their children in their varying uniforms and will proudly tell them about their new war-work until the children are completely confused. Though the children seem proud of their fathers' uniforms, they often seem to resent and feel very much estranged by their mothers' appearances in such unexpected disguises.

It is still more difficult for children to get any understanding of the reason why they are being evacuated and cannot stay in the place where their mothers are. In the case of our children, as in the case of many others, this is further aggravated by the fact that they actually did live in London with their mothers during the worst dangers and were sent to the country afterwards when London seemed quite peaceful. They reason with some justification that they can live wherever their mothers live, and that, if 'home' is as much in danger as all that, their mothers should not be there either. (This, of course, concerns the bigger children of 5 or more.)

The understanding of catastrophes like the death of a father has little to do with reasoning. In these cases children meet the usual psychological difficulties of grasping the significance of death at such an early age. Their attitude to the happening is completely a matter of emotion.

We may, of course, often be wrong in assuming that children 'understand' the happenings

around them. In talking they only use the proper words for them but without the meaning attached. Words like 'army', 'navy', 'air force' may mean to them strange countries to which their fathers have gone. America (for the children the place where all the good things, especially all the parcels, come from) was discovered the other day to mean to one child at least 'a merry car'. The word 'bombing' is often used indiscriminately for all manner of destruction of unwanted objects. 'London' is the word used for the children's former homes, irrespective of the fact that the child may now live in Essex or still in Hampstead. Several of our children in Wedderburn Road used to say in talking: 'When I was still in London . . .', and one boy of 4 once explained in a London shop to the shop assistant's great astonishment: 'I used to live in London but London is all bombed and gone and all the houses have fallen down.' He was unable to realize the fact that the comparatively unbombed street in which he now lived with us was still the same city. 'Home' is the place to which all children are determined to return, irrespective of the fact that in most cases they are aware of its

destruction. 'War' above everything else signifies the period of time for which children have to be separated from their parents. A striking example of such misunderstanding was Pamela, a girl of $4\frac{1}{2}$, who as we thought had perfectly grasped the meaning of evacuation. She was a thrice-bombed child, lived in Wedderburn Road and like all the others, waited for the opening of our country house. We had carefully explained to all the children that they were being transferred to the country, and why. But when at last, after weeks of expectation (because the lease of the country house did not materialize) she stood in our front hall, all dressed and ready, waiting for the American ambulance car to take her out, she exclaimed joyfully: 'The war is over and we are going to the country. It has lasted a long time!' The longing for the Country House which had been the centre of interest for the Nursery children for some weeks had suddenly got confused in her mind with the more general longing for the end of the war which would, as all the children firmly believe, take them all back into their former homes and to their parents.

Reaction to Destruction

IN this war children are frequently to be found directly on the scenes of battle. Though here in England they are spared the actual horror of seeing people fight around them, they are not spared sights of destruction, death, and injury from air raids. Even when removed from the places of the worst danger there is no certainty, as some of our cases show, that they will not meet new bombing incidents at places to which they were sent for safety. General sympathy has been aroused by the idea that little children should thus come into close contact with the horrors of the war. It is this situation which led many people to expect that children would receive traumatic shock from air raids and would develop abnormal reactions very similar to the traumatic or war neurosis of soldiers in the last war.

We can only describe our observations on the basis of our own case-material, which excludes children who have received severe

bodily injuries in air raids, though as mentioned before it does not exclude children who have been bombed repeatedly and partly buried by debris. So far as we can notice there were no signs of traumatic shock to be observed in these children. If these bombing incidents occur when small children are in the care either of their own mothers or of a familiar mother-substitute they do not seem to be particularly affected by them. Their experience remains an accident, in line with other accidents of childhood. This observation is borne out by the reports of nurses or social workers in London County Council Rest Centres where children used to arrive, usually in the middle of the night, straight from their bombed houses. They also found that children who arrived together with their own families showed little excitement and no undue disturbance. They slept and ate normally and played with whatever toys they had rescued or which might be provided. It

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is a widely different matter when children during an experience of this kind are separated from or even lose their parents.

It is a common misunderstanding of the child's nature which leads people to suppose that children will be saddened by the sight of destruction and aggression. Children between the age of 1 and 2 years, when put together in a play-pen will bite each other, pull each other's hair and steal each other's toys without regard for the other child's unhappiness. They are passing through a stage of development where destruction and aggression play one of the leading parts. If we observe young children at play we notice that they will destroy their toys, pull off the arms and legs of their dolls or soldiers, puncture their balls, smash whatever is breakable, and will only mind the result because complete destruction of the toy blocks further play. The more their strength and independence grow the more they will have to be watched so that they may not do too much damage, nor hurt each other or those weaker than themselves. We often say half jokingly

that there is continual war raging in a nursery. We mean by this that at this time of life destructive and aggressive impulses are still at work in children in a manner in which they only recur in grown-up life when they are let loose for the purposes of war.

It is one of the recognized aims of education to deal with the aggressiveness of the child's nature, *i.e.* in the course of the first four or five years to change the child's own attitude towards these impulses in himself. The wish to hurt people and later the wish to destroy objects undergo all sorts of changes. They are usually first restricted, then suppressed, by commands and prohibitions; a little later they are repressed, which means that they disappear from the child's consciousness—he does not dare any more to have knowledge of these wishes. There is always the danger that they might return from the unconscious; therefore all sorts of protections are built up against them: the cruel child develops pity, the destructive child will become hesitant and over-careful. If education is handled intelligently the main

part of these aggressive impulses will be directed away from their primitive aim of doing harm to somebody or something and will be used to fight the difficulties of the outer world ; to accomplish tasks of all kinds, to measure one's strength in competition, and to use it generally to 'do good' instead of 'being bad' as the original impulse demanded.

In the light of these considerations it is easier to determine what the present war conditions with their incidents of wholesale destruction may do to a child. Instead of turning away from them in instinctive horror, as people seem to expect, the child may turn towards them with primitive excitement. The real danger is not that the child, caught up all innocently in the whirlpool of the war, will be shocked into illness. The danger lies in the fact that the destruction raging in the outer world may meet the very real aggressiveness which rages in the inside of the child. At the age when education should start to deal with these impulses, confirmation should not be given from

the outside world that the same impulses are uppermost in other people. Children will play joyfully on bombed sites and around bomb craters with blasted bits of furniture, and throw bricks from crumbled walls at each other. But it becomes impossible to educate them towards a repression of or a reaction against destruction while they are doing so. After their first years of life they fight against their own wishes to do away with people of whom they are jealous, who disturb or disappoint them or who offend their childish feelings in some other way. It must be very difficult for them to accomplish this task of fighting their own death wishes when at the same time people are killed and hurt every day around them. Children have to be safeguarded against the primitive horrors of the war, not because horrors and atrocities are so strange to them but because we want them at this decisive stage of their development to overcome and estrange themselves from the primitive and atrocious wishes of their own infantile nature.

Five Types of Air Raid Anxiety

WHAT is true about the child's attitude to destruction applies in a certain measure to the subject of anxiety. Children are, of course, afraid of air raids, but their fear is neither as universal nor as overwhelming as has been expected. An explanation is required as to why it is present in some cases, absent in others, comparatively mild in most, and rather violent in certain types of children.

It will be easier to answer these practical questions if we draw on our theoretical knowledge about the motives for fear and anxiety reactions in human beings. We have learned that there are three main reasons for the development of fear reactions :

(i) An individual is afraid quite naturally and sensibly when there is some real danger present in the outside world which threatens either his safety or his whole existence. His fear will be all the greater the more he knows about the seriousness of the danger. His fear will urge him to adopt precautionary measures. Under its influence he will either fight it or, if that is impossible, try to escape from it. Only when

the danger is of overwhelming extent and suddenness will he be shocked and paralysed into inaction.

This 'real anxiety' plays its part in the way in which children are afraid of air raids. They fear them so far as they can understand what is happening. As described above, they have, in spite of their youth, acquired a certain degree of knowledge of this new danger. But it would be a mistake to over-rate this understanding, and consequently to over-rate the amount or the permanency of this real fear of air raids. Knowledge and reason only play a limited part in a child's life. His interest quickly turns away from the real things in the outer world, especially when they are unpleasant, and reverts to his own childish interests, to his toys, his games, and to his phantasies. The danger in the outer world which he recognizes at one moment and to which he answers with his fear is put aside in another moment. Precautions are not kept up and fear gives way to an attitude of utter disregard.

There was an incident observed by one

of our colleagues during a daylight air raid in a surface shelter into which a mother had shepherded her little son of school age. For a while they both listened to the dropping of the bombs ; then the boy lost interest and became engrossed in a story-book which he had brought with him. The mother tried to interrupt his reading several times with anxious exclamations. He always returned to his book after a second, until she at last demanded in angry and scolding tones that he should now 'drop his book and attend to the air raid'.

We observed exactly the same process in the Children's Centre at the time of the December, March, and May raids. When our unexploded bomb lay in the neighbouring garden the children began by being mildly interested and afraid. They learned to keep away from glass windows and to avoid the entrance into the garden. By keeping up continual talk about the possible explosion we could have frightened them into continuation of that attitude. Whenever we let the subject alone their interest flagged. They forgot about the menace from the glass whenever they returned to their accustomed games ; when the threat from outside lasted more than a week they began to get cross with it and denied its presence. In spite of the bomb still being unremoved they suddenly declared : 'The bomb is gone and we shall go into the garden !' There is nothing outstanding in this behaviour of children towards the presence of real danger and real fear. It is only one example of the way in which at this age they deal with the facts of reality whenever they become unpleasant. They drop their contact with reality, they deny the facts, get rid of their fear in this manner and return apparently undisturbed to the pursuits and interests of their own childish world.

(ii) The second reason for anxiety can best be understood by reverting to the child's attitude towards destruction and aggression which we have described above. After the first years of life the individual learns to criticize and overcome in himself certain instinctive wishes, or rather he learns to refuse them conscious expression. He learns that it is bad to kill, to hurt, and to destroy, and would like to believe that he has no further wish to do any of these

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things. But he can only keep up this attitude when the people in the outer world do likewise. When he sees killing and destruction going on outside, this arouses his fear that the impulses which he has only a short while ago buried in himself will be awakened again. We have described above how the small child in whom these inhibitions against aggression have not yet been established is free of the abhorrence of air raids. The slightly older child who has just been through this fight with himself will on the other hand be specially sensitive to their menace. When he has only just learned to curb his own aggressive impulses, he will have real outbreaks of anxiety when enemy bombs come down and do damage around him. This type of anxiety we have only seen in our one girl of another age-group (10 years) who ardently wished to leave England altogether and to return to Canada where she had been born, where everything was peaceful and 'no horrid things to see'.

(iii) The third type of anxiety is of a completely different nature. There is no education without fear. Children are afraid of disobeying

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the commands and prohibitions of their elders either because they fear punishment or because they fear to lose their parents' love whenever they are naughty. This fear of authority develops a little later into a fear of the child's own conscience. We regard it as progress in the child's education when commands and prohibitions from outside become more and more unnecessary and the child knows what to do and what not to do under the direction of his own conscience. At the time when this nucleus of inner ideas which we call conscience is formed, it turns back continually to the figures of the outside world on the one hand, to the imaginations of his own phantasy on the other, and borrows strength from both to reinforce the inner commandments. The child of 4 or 5 who is afraid in the evening before sleep because he thinks he has done wrong or thought forbidden thoughts will not only have a 'bad conscience' or be afraid what father and mother would say if they knew about his wickedness. He will also be afraid of ghosts and bogeymen as reinforcements of the real parent figures and of the inner voice. Children

have a large list of dangers which serve as convenient symbols for their conscience; they are afraid of policemen who will come and arrest them, gipsies and robbers who will steal them, chimney sweeps or coal carriers who will put them in their bags, dustmen who will put them in their bins, lions and tigers who will come and eat them, earthquakes which will shake their houses, and thunderstorms which threaten them.

When they receive religious teaching they may leave all else aside and be afraid of the devil and of hell. There are many children who cannot go to sleep in the evening because they are afraid that God will look in on them and punish them for their sins. There are others who received no religious teaching who transfer the same fear to the moon. They cannot fall asleep if the moon looks at them through the window; there are even children who cannot fall asleep because their fears are busy with expectations of the end of the world.

For children in this stage of development of their inner conscience air raids are simply a new symbol for old fears. They are afraid of sirens and of bombs as they are afraid of thunder and lightning. Hitler and German 'planes take the place of the devil, of the lions and the tigers. In the Children's Centre, for instance, Charlie (4½) called from his bed in the evening that the shelter was not safe enough and that the house would fall down on him; he would certainly have called out in the same way in peace-time to say that he had a fear of earthquakes or of thunderstorms. Roger (4) demanded that his mother should come every evening and stand arched over his bed until he fell asleep; it is well known that there are many children of that same age at all times who refuse to go to sleep unless their mothers stand by to hold their hands and safeguard them against forbidden actions. There is another boy of the same age whom the nursery superintendent has to assure with endless repetitions that if she leaves him at night he will surely find her again in the morning. This fear also only disguises itself as a fear of air attack at night; when we enquire into it more closely we realize that he is afraid that he has done wrong somehow and that for punishment his teacher and protector will be spirited away at night.

We can convince ourselves of the truth of this explanation when we have the chance to remove these children from danger and put them in surroundings where there is no talk of air raids. They will slowly revert to their former forms of anxiety. We shall know that peace has returned when nothing is left for the children to be afraid of except their own former ghosts and bogeymen.

(iv) This enumeration of the various types of air raid anxiety in children, long as it may seem, is still incomplete. Even superficial observation will show that children do not only undergo and develop the fears which belong to their own age and stage of development, but that they also share the fear reactions of their mothers, and, more generally, of the adult world around them. No understanding of their own, no development of inhibitions against primitive aggression and no guilty conscience is necessary for the development of this further type of anxiety. A child of school age, like the boy described above, may stick stubbornly to his own reactions. A child in the infant stage of 1, 2, 3, 4 years of age will shake and tremble with the anxiety of his mother and this anxiety will impart itself the more thoroughly to the child the younger he is. The primitive animal tie between mother and baby, which in some respect still makes one being out of the two, is the basis for the development of this type of air raid anxiety in children. The quiet manner in which the London population on the whole met the air raids is therefore responsible in one way for the extremely rare occurrence of 'shocked' children.

An instance of this is the experience of a medical colleague a few days after the London fire in the St. Pancras Dispensary. A mother appeared as out-patient with her little girl of five. When asked what was the matter with the child she simply said that she had brought her because she thought she had 'a cough and and a bit of a cold'. When asked about its beginnings, she thought 'being taken out from the warmth into the cold' might be responsible. When questioned further she gave the information bit by bit that she and the little girl had been regular shelterers in a big basement shelter under a warehouse. The building above them, like so many others, had caught

fire and been destroyed. The exits of the shelter were blocked, but a rescue party had come and dragged the shelterers out one by one. To use her own words, the mother had 'as a matter of fact been quite worried about the little one because for a while they could not find her'. It was the transition from this blazing furnace of the shelter to the cold December air which had given the child 'the cough and a bit of a cold'. We can be certain that this particular child, protected and fortified by her mother's lack of fear and excitement, will not develop air raid anxiety.

One of our own mothers, a comfortable and placid Irishwoman, the mother of eight children, when asked whether her rooms had been damaged by bombing, answered with a beaming smile: 'Oh no, we were ever so lucky. We had only blast and my husband fixed the window-frames again.' Blast which removes the window-frames, not to mention the window-panes, can be a very uncomfortable experience; but again we can be certain that for the children of this mother the occurrence of the blast was not a very alarming incident.

We had, on the other hand, the opportunity to observe very anxious mothers with very anxious children. There was John's mother who developed agoraphobia during the air raids. She never went to bed while the alarm lasted, stood at the door trembling, and insisted on the child's not sleeping either. He, a boy of 5, had to get dressed, to hold her hand and to stand next to her. He developed extreme nervousness and bed-wetting. When separated from her in the Children's Centre he did not show special alarm either in daylight or in night raids. Iris, a girl of 3½, whose mother was 'quite nervous' since their small flat had been bombed and they had been taken in by neighbours, would demand to be taken out of bed at night during raids and to sit all dressed on a chair. She never repeated this reaction when living with us.

We also had the opportunity to observe one mother with a new-born baby, who at a time before the shelter had been built slept in our house under the stairs. Whenever the whistling of a bomb was heard she would snatch up the baby and could hardly be prevented from rushing out of doors. She must have known that

the child was safer under the stairs than in the open with the continual rain of anti-aircraft shrapnel. But this realization did not help matters ; it was evidently abrogated by a more primitive fear of the baby being buried in the house. The baby, of course, remained unconscious of the danger, but in watching the scene we felt convinced that the mother's state of frenzy must have imparted itself to the baby in some harmful manner. Luckily this particular mother was able to leave London soon for the comparative safety of the country.

(v) The fear of air raids assumes completely different dimensions in those children who have lost their fathers as a result of bombing. In quiet times they turn away from their memories as much as possible and are gay and unconcerned with the other children. We have four examples where their gaiety is of a specially uncontrolled and forced kind. The recurrence of an air raid forces them to remember and repeat their former experience. Again it is more the mother's emotion which they have to live through than their own. One little boy (4)

then re-experiences in detail how they heard the bomb fall on the particular place where the father worked, the rising anxiety when he did not return home at the usual time, the mother's concern over the meal which she had prepared and then, together with the mother, the search for the lost body, the endless enquiries at various official places, the waiting at the mortuary, and the mother's grief and sorrow when the loss was confirmed. For these children every bomb which falls is like the one which killed the father and is feared as such.

One of our war orphans is, quite in contrast to all other children, immensely excited when he sights any bomb damage, new or old. Another, a little girl of 6, transfers this fear and excitement from bombs to accidents of all kinds, to the sight of ambulances, talk of hospitals, illnesses, operations, in short, to every occurrence which brings the fact of death back to her mind. It is true, of course, that this latter fear is not a true type of air raid anxiety. It is above everything else a reaction to the death of the father.

Reaction to Evacuation

THE war acquires comparatively little significance for children so long as it only threatens their lives, disturbs their material comfort, or cuts their food rations. It becomes enormously significant the moment it breaks up family life and uproots the first emotional attachments of the child within the family group. London children therefore were on the whole much less upset by bombing than by evacuation to the country as a protection against it.

The reasons for and against evacuation were widely discussed during the first year of the war in England. Interest in the psychological reactions of the children receded into the background when, in the second year, the air raids on London demonstrated against all possible objection the practical need for children's evacuation. In order to examine completely all the psychological problems involved, the subject would need to be studied from various angles.

These problems are interesting enough to

have been made the subject of surveys carried out by child guidance clinics set up in reception areas and by consulting psychologists attached to County Medical Offices. These keep an eye on trouble in the billets, smooth out difficulties and remove the worst billeting misfits. They have a unique opportunity for studying the situation (especially the situation of the school children).

The Government scheme for evacuation of unattended children was never meant to include children under school age, with the exception of some little ones who were taken along with evacuation parties as younger brothers and sisters. Evacuation of unattended children under 5 was rightly considered a difficult undertaking. They were supposed to stay with their mothers and only to be evacuated with them when necessary. When the percentage of mothers who were unwilling to leave London and stay in billets was rather large, a scheme for under-fives was added to the other. These under-fives, whose mothers had to have a good

reason for staying behind, were sent out unattended, either to nurseries or to selected billets. The difficulty remained that vacancies under this scheme were scarce compared with the onrush of mothers who were eager to send their small children to some place of safety.

In a London Nursery like ours there is little opportunity for collecting evidence about the successful billeting of under-fives. Children who are happy in their billets, *i.e.* who find a foster-mother ready to 'adopt' them, stay in the country and little more is heard about them. 'Billeting-failures', on the other hand, wander backwards and forwards between London and the country. Some of them may settle down in the end in residential nurseries. As mentioned in our statistics, more than 20 per cent. of our cases are billeting failures of various types (see p. 59).

We should be more inclined to hold the billets responsible for the inability of such a large number of children to adapt themselves to the new conditions if we did not possess first-hand evidence of the difficulties involved from our own observations of children after their first separation from their families.

It is true that not many children present as frightening a picture as Patrick (3½), who found himself reduced to a state in which compulsive formulas and symptomatic actions played the largest part; or Beryl (4) who sat for several days on the exact spot where her mother had left her, would not speak, eat, or play, and had to be moved around like an automaton. Even apart from these unusual cases we have seen long-drawn-out states of homesickness, upset, and despair which are certainly more than the average inexperienced foster-mother can be expected to cope with. We certainly see no similar states of distress in children when we make the round of London shelters and find them sleeping on the platforms next to their mothers. Our own feeling revolts against the idea of infants living under the conditions of air raid danger and underground sleeping. For the children themselves during the days or weeks of homesickness this is the state of bliss to which they all desire to return.

There are so many obvious reasons why small children should not stay in London shelters that it is not easy to pay equal attention to the

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emotional reaction of the individual child against evacuation. A child who is removed from London to the country is certainly removed from a state of greater danger to a lesser one; he exchanges unhygienic conditions of life for more hygienic ones; he avoids the possibilities of infection which multiply where thousands of individuals are massed together. If the child goes to a residential nursery he will be better fed than before; he will be given proper occupation and companionship and will be spared the dreariness of an existence where at the worst periods he was dragged to and fro between home and shelter with long and empty hours of queuing up at a Tube Station. It is difficult to realize that all these improvements in the child's life may dwindle to nothing when weighed against the fact that he has to leave his family to gain them.

This state of affairs is still more difficult to understand when we consider that many of the mothers concerned are not 'good mothers' in the ordinary sense of the word. We deal with a large majority of mothers who are affectionate, intelligent, hardworking, ready to make every

possible sacrifice for their children ; but there is a minority of mothers who are none of these. They may be lazy and negligent, hard and embittered and unable to give affection. There are others who are over-strict in their demands and make the life and upbringing of the child extremely difficult. It is a known fact that children will cling even to mothers who are continually cross and sometimes cruel to them. The attachment of the small child to his mother seems to a large degree independent of her personal qualities and certainly of her educational ability. This statement is not based on any sentimental conception of the sacredness of the tie between mother and child. It is the outcome of detailed knowledge of the growth and nature of the child's emotional life, and of the structure of his mind, in which the figure of the mother is for a certain time the sole important representative of the whole outer world.

Development of the mother-relationship and the effect of separation from the mother at various stages

In the relationship of the small child to its mother there are definite main phases to be distinguished from each other. *The first phase*, which comprises the first few months of life, is characteristically selfish and material. The small baby's life is governed by sensations of need and satisfaction, pleasure and discomfort. The mother plays a part in it so far as she brings satisfaction and removes discomfort. When the baby is fed, warm and comfortable, he withdraws his interest from the outer world and falls asleep. When he is hungry, cold and wet, or disturbed by sensations in his own intestines, he cries for attention.

It is certain that care and attention given by the mother, *i.e.* in a special atmosphere of affection which only the mother can supply, is more satisfactory to the baby than more indifferent and mechanical ministrations to his needs. But the fact is that a baby who at this time of life is separated from his mother will accept food and care from a mother-substitute. His needs are overwhelming, his helplessness is extreme, and his distinction between one person and another is still in the beginning stage. Babies of this age who are left with us by their mothers will usually have a short time of upset,

may cry a while, have more difficulty in falling asleep, and show some irregularity in their digestion for a day or two. We still have to learn exactly how much of this upset is due to the disturbance of routine and how much to the change away from the individual handling and from the particular atmosphere of intimacy created by the mother.

The upset caused is, of course, of a far more serious nature and of longer duration in cases where the mother has been breast-feeding the baby and weaning has to occur simultaneously with the separation. Weaning in itself acts on the child as a loss of satisfaction and a separation from the mother in an important sense. When the mother who has left reappears after a few days, the baby at this stage will probably not show signs of recognition.

The second phase starts in, roughly, the second half of the first year of life. The material relationship to the mother still exists. The mother remains, as she will remain for several years, the instrument of satisfaction for the child. But out of this ignoble beginning of a human relationship something different begins to grow. The baby begins to pay attention to the mother also at times when there is no urgent necessity for him to be attended to. He likes his mother's company, enjoys her fondling, and dislikes to be left alone. So far the absence of the mother has only been a potential danger : some inner need might arise and there might be nobody outside to fulfil it. Now, in this later phase, the mother is already appreciated or missed for her own sake. The child is conscious of her presence, follows her round with his eyes, can answer her smile and is, as described above, moved by her moods. His need for her affection becomes as urgent for his psychological satisfaction as the need to be fed and taken care of is for his bodily comfort.

Disturbance after parting from the mother will last somewhat longer at this stage. Babies of this age are sometimes off their feed when left with us. Many show signs of restlessness during sleep and often seem unfriendly or rather withdrawn from contact with the outer world. Smiles, friendliness, playfulness will only reappear after the bodily functions have returned to normality. This interruption of psychological contact with the outer world is

not simply the consequence of the bodily discomfort which the baby experiences ; when once used to us, the same baby will not cut off his contact with the nurse who handles him even in times of illness. But at this period of separation he repeats what he did in the beginning of his mother-relationship ; he establishes personal contact with the mother-substitute only on the basis of the fulfilment and satisfaction provided for his bodily needs.

The personal attachment of the child to his mother, which starts in this manner in the first year of life, comes to its full development in the second. It was said before that the child is attached to his mother ; it can now be safely said that he loves her. The feelings for her which he is able to experience acquire the strength and variety of adult human love. This love makes demands and is possessive. All the child's instinctive wishes are now centred on the mother. While she is breast-feeding him, he wants to 'eat' her ; later on he will bite her, handle her, and whatever impulse starts up in him will try to find satisfaction on her person.

This relationship between small child and mother might be a happy one except for two reasons. The child's demands are too great ; he is virtually insatiable. However long the mother may have fed him at the breast, he will express by his resentment at weaning-time that it was not long enough ; however much time she spends near him, he will still bitterly resent being left alone at other times. Also the child soon becomes aware of the fact that there are other people in the world besides him and his mother. He realizes the presence of brothers and sisters who claim equal rights and become his rivals. He becomes aware, sometimes at a very early age, of the presence of the father and includes him in his world. He recognizes him as a dangerous rival (where family life is normal). He loves him at the same time. With this conflict of feelings he enters into the whole complicated entanglement of feelings which characterizes the emotional life of human beings.

Reactions to parting at this time of life are particularly violent. The child feels suddenly deserted by all the persons in this world to whom he has learned to attach importance.

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His new ability to love finds itself deprived of the accustomed objects and his greed for affection remains unsatisfied. His longing for mother becomes intolerable and throws him into states of despair which are very similar to the despair and distress shown by babies who are hungry and whose food does not appear at the accustomed time. For several hours, or even for a day or two, this psychological craving of the child, the 'hunger' for his mother, may override all bodily sensations. There are some children of this age who will refuse to eat or to sleep. Very many of them will refuse to be handled or comforted by strangers.

The children cling to some object or some form of expression which means to them at that moment memory of the material presence of the mother. Some will cling to a toy which the mother has put into their hands at the moment of parting ; others to some item of bedding or clothing which they have brought from home. Some will monotonously repeat the word by which they are used to call their mothers, as, for instance, Christine (17 months), who said, 'Mum, mum, mum, mum, mum,

. . .' continually in a deep voice for at least three days.

Observers seldom appreciate the depth and seriousness of this grief of a small child. Their judgment of it is misled for one main reason. This childish grief is short-lived. Mourning of equal intensity in an adult person would have to run its course throughout a year ; the same process in the child between one and two years will normally be over in 36 to 48 hours. It is a psychological error to conclude from this short duration that the reaction is only a superficial one and can be treated lightly. The difference in duration is due to certain psychological differences between the state of childhood and maturity. The child's life is still entirely governed by the principle which demands that he should seek pleasure and avoid pain and discomfort. He cannot wait for the arrival of pleasure, and bear discomfort, in the idea that in this way ultimate pleasure may again be reached.

An adult person may find himself in the same situation of being suddenly cut off from all the people he loves, and will also experience intense longing. But his memories of the past and his outlook into the future will help him to maintain an inner relationship to the loved objects and thus to bridge the time until reunion is possible. The psychological situation of the child is completely different. A love-object who does not give him immediate satisfaction is no good to him. His memories of the past are spoilt by the disappointment which he feels at the present moment. He has no outlook into the future, and it would be of no help to him if he had. His needs are so urgent that they require immediate gratification ; promises of pleasure are no help.

The little child will, therefore, after a short while, turn away from the mother-image in his mind, and, though at first unwillingly, will accept the comfort which is offered. In some cases acceptance may come in slow stages. Christine, for instance, would at first only let herself be fondled or held by an unseen person. She would sit on somebody's lap, turn her head away, enjoy the familiar sensation of being held, and probably add to it in her own mind the imaginary picture of her own mother. Whenever she looked at the face of the person

who held her, she began to cry. There are other children who are spared these violent reactions. They seem placid, dazed, and more or less indifferent. It takes a few days or even a week before this placidity is disturbed by a realization of the fact that they are among strangers ; all sorts of slighter depressive reactions and problems of behaviour will then result. All children of this age, those with the violent reactions as well as those whose reaction is delayed, will show a tendency to fall ill under the new conditions ; they will develop colds, sore throats, or slight intestinal troubles.

That the shock of parting at this stage is really serious is further proved by the observation that a number of these children fail to recognize their mothers when they visit after they have 'settled down' in the new surroundings. The mothers themselves realize that this lack of recognition is not due to any limitation of the faculty of memory as such. The same child who looks at his mother's face with stony indifference as if she were a complete stranger, will have no difficulty in recognizing lifeless objects which have belonged to his past. When taken home again he will recognize the rooms, the position of the beds, and will remember the contents of cupboards, etc.

Fathers are treated better in this respect. The children were always more or less used to their coming and going and not dependent on them for their primitive gratifications. Consequently parting from them is no real shock and their memory remains more undisturbed. Failure to recognize the mother occurs when something has happened to the image of the mother in the child's mind, *i.e.* to its inner relationship to her. The mother has disappointed the child and left his longing for her unsatisfied ; so he turns against her with resentment and rejects the memory of her person from his consciousness.

The mother-relationship of the child between 3 and 5 years old

What is true about the small child remains true with certain modifications for the next two or three years of life. Changes are brought about slowly by development in various directions. Intelligence grows and enables the

child to get some understanding of real situations, for instance, of the real reasons for being sent away ; towards the age of 5 this mental understanding already acts as a help in lessening the shock. More comfort can be derived from memories, and hopes for the future begin to play a part.

On the other hand the relations between children and their parents are less simple and harmonious at this time of life. All sorts of complicating factors have been added to the home situation and confuse the picture when the family has to break up. The child of this age has ceased to live in partnership with his mother only ; he has become a member of a larger family group, where his emotions and affections are concerned.

So far the emotional development of boys and girls has seemed rather similar ; at this age they begin to develop along definitely different lines. The boy begins to identify himself with his father and to imitate him in various ways. This changes his position towards the mother ; he ceases to be a dependent baby and turns into a small demanding male who claims her attention, desires her admiration, and longs to possess her in more grown-up ways. The little girl, on the other hand, has grown away from her complete absorption in the mother. She begins to imitate her in her turn, she tries to play mother herself with dolls or with her younger brothers and sisters. She turns her affection and interest more towards the father and would like him to appreciate her in the mother's place.

Both sexes in this manner have their first experience of being in love. As a result of circumstances it is inevitable that this first love is disappointing. In comparison with the rival parent the child feels himself to be small, ineffective, and inferior. He experiences feelings of anger towards one parent, jealousy towards the other, and feels generally discontented that his phantastic wishes to be big can find no real fulfilment.

It acts as a second disturbing factor that the parents use the love which their children feel for them to educate the children. The early upbringing of children is not at all an easy undertaking. Children are born as little

savages ; when they enter school at the age of five they are expected to be more or less civilized human beings. This means that the first years of life are completely filled with the struggle between the demands of the parents and the instinctive wishes of the child. Already in the first two years weaning has been carried out against the desire of the child, and habit training has been enforced. The child's hunger and greed have had to adapt themselves to regular mealtimes. In this new period the parents criticize and restrict the child's aggression and his wishes to destroy things. They do not only train him to cleanliness, they want him to dislike dirt as much as they do. When he is naturally cruel, they want him to feel pity. His first sexual impulses are interfered with when they try to satisfy themselves on the child's own body ; they certainly find no satisfaction when they turn towards the parents'. The curiosity of the child is left largely unsatisfied and his natural desire to be admired is criticized as a wish to 'show off'.

In this first education of the child the parents do not usually apply compulsion ; they simply make use of the dependence of the child and of his love for father and mother. The child is quite helpless in the hands of the parents ; therefore even a slight punishment will frighten him into obedience. The parent's love is all-important to the child ; therefore it is used as a reward when the child is 'good' and its withdrawal is threatened when the child is 'naughty'. In this unequal battle nothing is left to the child in the end but to give in and become civilized.

These two factors, disappointment in early love and the pressure of education, threaten to spoil the pleasantness of the relations between child and parent. Whenever the child is denied some pleasure he becomes resentful, when he is too much restricted he turns obstinate. When he is punished he hates the parents ; but he can never stand hating father and mother without feeling the strongest guilt about it. Children are quick in their anger and know only one main punishment for anybody who offends them : *i.e.* that this person should go away and not return, which in childish language means that he should die.

In everyday life at home these emotions are

natural and necessary ; they create small outbursts and settle down again. The father or mother who have been wished dead at one moment are reinstated in the child's affections in the next. On the other hand it is probably these violent negative feelings of the child which determine his reaction to separation at this period. The negative feelings towards the parents are meant to be only transitory. Under the influence of daily contact they are held in check and neutralized by the affection for the parents which is constantly produced in answer to all the satisfaction which the child receives. It does not seem so very dangerous to kill a parent in phantasy if at the same time outward evidence shows that this same parent is alive and well.

But separation seems to be an intolerable confirmation of all these negative feelings. Father and mother are now really gone. The child is frightened by their absence and suspects that their desertion may be another punishment or even the consequence of his own bad wishes. To overcome this guilt it overstresses all the love which it has ever felt for his parents. This turns the natural pain of separation into an intense longing which is hard to bear.

In these moods of homesickness children are usually particularly good. Commands and prohibitions which they formerly opposed at home are now religiously observed in the absence of the parents. Whatever might be interpreted as implied criticism of the parents is violently resented. They search their thoughts for past wrongs about which they might feel guilty. Patrick ($3\frac{1}{2}$), when he heard that his mother had gone to hospital with a bad leg, began to remember a time when he had kicked her and began to wonder whether her illness was his fault.

Visits or lack of them are understood as rewards or punishments. We had several little girls of three and four who would hang round the doors for hours when their mothers were expected to come. But the visits at these times never brought the desired satisfaction. When the mothers were present the children would be gloomy, shy, and hang on to them without talking ; when the mothers left again the affection broke through and violent scenes were produced. The children acted as if they could

only feel loving towards the absent mother ; towards the present mother the resentment was uppermost.

Again the reactions towards the father do not develop on quite the same lines. There are two main attitudes which we have observed. The first is that many children will adopt every father who enters the nursery as if he were their own. They will demand to sit on his lap or wish to be carried around by him. (A visiting mother will never be claimed in this manner by strange children.) The second is that some little girls (2-4 years) will suddenly develop acute anxiety at the sight of any man, will turn their face away, cover their eyes with their hands, shriek with fear and run to the nurses for protection. The first reaction may easily be due to the general scarcity of the male element in nursery life. The second is probably based on the inner rejection of the father due to the child's disappointment caused by separation.

Further fate of the child-parent relationship

At the beginning of this chapter we described how difficult it is at the start of nursery life to wean the child away from his mother. It is just as difficult in the later work to try and keep alive in the child at least remnants of his original relationship to the parents.

Most of the children under three will, because of the inner situation described, forget about their parents or at least become apparently indifferent towards them. They shift their affections to the new surroundings and after some hesitation and some loss of valuable development, to be described later, will restart normal life on a new basis.

After three years of age children will not normally forget their parents. Their memories are more stable, change of attitude takes the place of complete repression. It is already easier for the children to find active and conscious expression for their feelings. The image of the parents remains in their mind, especially when helped from the outside by frequent visits, receipt of parcels and constant talk about the parents. Frequently these parental images undergo great changes compared with the real parent in the child's past. In phantasy life the absent parents seem

better, bigger, richer, more generous, and more tolerant than they have ever been. It is the negative feelings, as shown above, which undergo repression and create all sorts of moods and problems of behaviour, the origin of which remains unknown to child and teacher alike.

But even at this age, where relationship with the parents persists in phantasy, the real affections of the children slowly leave the parents. Again the child of this age lives mainly in the present. New ties are formed, favourites are found among the teachers and nurses, brother-sister jealousies are transferred to the small members of the nursery community, friendships are established at a surprisingly early age. Pride in the home is changed to pride in the nursery, in the toys, and all the various possessions of the community.

In December, when many children were taken home for Christmas visits, we found signs of this estrangement from the parents. In our houses, where every possible concession is made to visiting parents, it hardly ever happens that a child will refuse to leave the nursery with its mother. But there were several small children (about 2 years old) who showed little friendliness to their mothers when they were at home with them and refused either to eat, sleep, or play. They would cling to memories of the nursery ('my bath', 'my toast', 'my Nelsa') as they had clung to their mother's name ('Mum, mum'), their pet animals or some belonging of their mother's when they first came to the nursery.

The bigger children (3-4 years) know, of course, that this estranged woman who now showers affection on them is in reality their mother; but this rational conviction does not carry them far.

The situation was most clearly expressed in the

example of Mary (3 yrs. 3 mths.). Mary was the child who took the longest time to adapt herself to nursery life. For at least five months every visit by her mother was accompanied by floods of tears. Her development was arrested through her concentration on her longing, her disappointments, and her varying moods of stubbornness and depression. She entered in July and began at last to settle down about Christmas time. She began to transfer her affections, to be gay, and to start all sorts of interests. In January she paid a longer visit to her mother and was very pleasant with her for two days. But when her mother asked her on the third afternoon whether she would rather stay another night or return to the nursery, she said politely and sensibly: 'Don't you think, Mummy, it would be better if we went home again'—home in that case, of course, meaning the nursery.

Not every child expresses matters so clearly as Mary. But even if the parents are not over-possessive, and nothing is done from the side of the nursery to fan the mother's jealousy, this situation must be nearly unbearable for mothers with a real attachment to their children. Fears of losing the child completely in this way are often the reason why mothers make their sudden decision to give up work and take their children home.

More material of this nature will be available after further experience of evacuation and nursery work. At the present moment no one can quite define or even make a mental picture of the new shocks of separation and all the innumerable troubles which will arise when, at the end of the war, all these children are deprived of their present homes to which they have got accustomed, and are expected to 'go home' again.

It is especially difficult to predict how this will react on those children who entered the nursery in the first six months of life (25 in our Babies' Home) and have never had any experience of a family situation.

Normal and Abnormal Methods of Outlet

IT is impossible for children to go through upheavals of this kind without showing their effect in 'difficult' behaviour and in variations from normality. Infantile nature has certain means at its disposal to deal with shocks, privations and upsets in outside life. Other psychological methods which are open to

adults are not yet available in childhood. Children may therefore go apparently unharmed through experiences which would produce grave results in people of another age. On the other hand they may break down completely under strain which to the ordinary adult person seems negligible. These peculiar-

ities of the psychological make-up of the child may account on the one hand for the astonishing robustness of children, on the other hand for most of the problems of behaviour and symptoms about which all the war nurseries complain.

Outlet in Speech

When during the time of blitz mothers came to the Children's Centre after a bad night's bombing, the best we could do for them was to provide an interested audience for their tales. The kitchen at Wedderburn Road would reverberate with descriptions of neighbours who had been killed, possessions which had been destroyed, and miraculous rescues from burning shelters. We would even risk the children hearing more of the events than was strictly necessary rather than cut short mothers when they unloaded their minds of these horrors. If they repeated the description often enough their excitement would visibly subside.

This most valuable outlet into speech and conscious thought, which acts as a drainage for anxiety and emotion, is denied to young children. It is possible that they would use this method at earlier ages when with their mothers. Under the conditions of nursery life the children do not talk about their frightening experiences after they have happened. Among all the children received at Wedderburn Road after their houses had been bombed there was not a single one who at that time related what had happened.

The only child who talked freely about bombing experiences was Charlie who had always lived in deep shelters, had heard a great deal of talk about bombing, but had never been himself in any bombing incident.

After a period of more than six months had elapsed several of these same children suddenly began to talk about the bombing as if it had happened yesterday.

Pamela (4½) related how her ceiling fell down and how her sister Gloria was all covered by it. Again, four months later, she drew the picture of a front door of a house and said: 'The door is broken and there is a big hole in it'. She knew that the door in the picture was the front door of her former home. At the same time her friend, Pauline (5), began to describe her bombing experiences in the same way. She dictated letters

to her American foster-parents: 'My house was bombed one time and my bath is broken and my windows. And my pussycat was hurt by a bomb and was hanging on the guard, and I picked him off and he jumped on again. And I was down in the shelter with my mammy and my granny.' And in another letter: 'My mammy and I were under the table and my poor little sister was in bed all by herself covered with stones, and my pussycat was thrown away.'

Bertram (3 yrs. 9 mths.) was in the Nursery several weeks before he could recount in words the event which had been a terrible shock for him, *i.e.* that his father had 'taken away his mother in a big car'.

The children who lost their fathers in air raids never mentioned anything of their experience for many months. Their mothers were convinced that they had forgotten all about it. Then, after a year, two of them at least told the complete story with no details left out. In all these instances speech does not serve as an outlet for the emotion which is attached to the happening. It is rather the other way round. The child begins to talk about the incident when the feelings which were aroused by it have been dealt with in some other manner.

Outlet in Play

While adults go over their experiences in conscious thought and speech, children do the same in their play. *War games* play a part in our nursery as they do in others. Houses which are built are not simply thrown over as in former times; they are bombed from above, bricks being used as bombs. Playing trains has given way to playing aeroplanes; the noise of trains to that of flying 'planes. Games like these will come more into the foreground after air attacks and give way to peace-time games when things are again normal. After the raids in March and May the children (3-5 years) repeated in play what they had seen or heard. The climbing frame in the garden was used to provide a high point for the bomber. One child climbed to the highest bar and threw heavy objects on the children underneath. This was also the only time when one of our children was overheard to mention gas. A girl (3 years) filled both her hands with sand from sandbox, threw the sand in the children's faces, and said 'This is a gas

attack'. This game was played without fear but with a great deal of unrestrained excitement.

A war game of a different kind was played by Bertie (4) at the time when he still refused to admit the truth of his father's death. He was ill in bed at the time of the spring raids, had a whole tray full of paper houses on his bed and played indefatigably. He would build the houses up, cover them with their roofs and then throw them down with small marbles which were his bombs. Whereas in the other children's game any number of people were 'killed' and in the end everything was left in bits and pieces, the point in Bertie's play was that all his people were always saved in time and all his houses were invariably built up again.

The other children repeated incidents of a more impersonal kind in their games; they played active and embellished versions of events which had actually happened. This served the purpose of relief and abreaction. Bertie's play on the other hand had the opposite intention; he wanted to deny the reality of what had happened. Since the denial was never completely successful the play had to be repeated incessantly; it became compulsive. The games of the other children remained transitory. (Bertie stopped playing in this way when half a year later he at last gave up his denial and was able to tell his story: 'My father has been killed and my mother has gone to hospital. She will come back at the end of the war, but he will not return.')

No war games are played in the Babies' Centre where the oldest children are now about 3 years—which means that they experienced bombing when they were less than two.

Dolls and teddy bears are used in play as substitutes for missing families. Children of 4 or 5 still go to bed with their pets, which they certainly would not do at that age under normal family conditions. There are several children who will not be separated from some toy animal which they have brought from home, and compulsively hold it in one hand, if possible even during washing, dressing, or eating. Lessening of that clinging is usually the first sign that the child has overcome the first shock of separation and has found new living objects for his affection. Lending a toy of this kind to another child is the sign of greatest love between two children. 'Mother and child' is played with dolls continually. In observing

the little girls one often feels that the doll does not represent the baby which the child can mother, but rather that the doll represents the absent mother herself. It is a sign of the greatest enmity between two children when they hurt each other's dolls or pet animals.

Shelters are, of course, built out of everything, and take the place of what the children used to call 'playing house'.

Outlet in Behaviour

Some children are unable to express what has happened to them either in speech or in play. Instead they develop behaviour which seems cranky to the outside world until it can be recognized as their special way of bringing up memories.

With Bertie (4), for instance, it seemed for a time as if he were really going crazy. He would suddenly interrupt whatever he was doing, run to the other end of the room, look aimlessly into the corners and return quietly as if nothing had happened. He would distort his face in the most horrible manner. He was restless and excitable, quick to pick quarrels, and very worried about his own health; he would not go out without warm clothes even in summer heat, and so on.

It showed in time that this was his way of relating how his mother had behaved after his father was killed and before she went insane. She had aimlessly searched for the father, had expressed her grief in an unrestrained manner, had been excitable and quarrelsome and very worried about the health of the boy. In the end it had been Bertie's falling ill with scarlet fever which had completed her breakdown. Bertie in his behaviour combined the expression of her emotion, her attitude toward the people around, her attitude to himself and possibly even some imitation of his father, who is said to have been specially protective and affectionate towards his family.

Another child, a boy of 5, has a very definite way of demonstrating the scenes which used to take place in his parents' home. He flies into violent tempers, turns against the people he loves most, attempts to destroy furniture, toys, etc. At the end of the scene he suddenly becomes gentle and affectionate, demands to sit on the teacher's lap and sucks his thumb. His father is known to act in a similar manner towards the mother; he also ends up their violent quarrels with a love scene with his young wife.

With little Bertram (3 $\frac{3}{4}$) fragments of odd behaviour are the only means to convey some idea of his past experiences. He will sit at table endlessly, apparently without eating: this means that he had conflicts about eating at the nursery where he lived before coming to ours. He threatens adults that they will 'get no pudding':

that means that he now does to others what he experienced in a passive way. At bed-time he 'acts up' in a curious way: this was found to be his remembrance of the times when he had been sent to bed for punishment, etc.

Examples of this kind could be continued endlessly. They are instructive as far as they show that past experiences of all kinds appear on the surface in the form of the usual behaviour problems.

Outlet in Phantasy

As already said, conscious phantasies are used largely to embellish and maintain the positive side of the child-parent relationship. In early childhood conscious phantasies are not restricted to the realm of thought. They go over into action and fill a large part of the child's life in the form of phantasy games. Conscious phantasy in its pure form (day dreams) finds its fullest expression only at a later stage of development.

There is one child who firmly refuses to join in any games where phantasy is used, where impersonations play a part, etc. Bertie (see above) gets frightened and anxious when he is urged by the other children to be a rabbit, a dog, a wolf, to play the rôle of another child, of one of the teachers, or whatever the play demands. His phantasy is exclusively reserved for dealing with the tragic story of his parents; it is inhibited in all other ways.

Return to infantile modes of behaviour (Regression)

Every step in early education is closely connected with one of the phases of the child's attachment to some living object in the outer world. During the first years of life every child should make steady and uninterrupted progress towards social adaptation. He is egoistic and narcissistic at the beginning of life. In the same measure as his feelings turn away from himself and go out towards mother and father, the further family, and the world beyond them, the child becomes increasingly able to restrict and gain control over his own instincts and to become 'social'. When something happens to shake his confidence in his parents or to rob him altogether of his loved objects he withdraws himself once more and regresses in social adaptation instead of progressing.

The advances he has made in becoming clean, in

being less destructive, in modesty, pity, and unselfishness, i.e. the first setting up of moral ideals within himself, has on the child's part not only been a sacrifice. He has felt pleasure in these achievements because they were made for the sake of the parents and thus brought their own reward. When the attachment to the parents is destroyed, all these new achievements lose their value for the child. There is no sense any more in being good, clean, or unselfish. When the child rejects his attachment to the parents who have deserted him he rejects at the same time much of the moral and social standards which he has already reached. Most of the difficulties shown by children who now fill the residential war nurseries are due to such regressions in development.

Bed-Wetting

Whenever training in cleanliness is achieved in the first few months of life it is based completely on reflex action and has nothing to do with child's psychological reactions. Experience has shown that this early control has a tendency to break down between the ages of 10 and 13 months, when psychological factors of various kinds enter and complicate the situation. A second and more lasting control is then achieved by education proper, that is by the usual method of criticism or praise, reward or punishment within the framework of the mother-child relationship. It takes time before this bladder and sphincter control is purely automatic. During this time the child will be clean or dirty according to the steadiness of his relations with the person who brought him up from dirtiness to cleanliness. A small child will normally have a setback in his habits when he changes hands. When the break in attachments is as sudden and complete as it has been under the influence of evacuation, even older children may revert to wetting and dirtying themselves. The breakdown in habit training is one of the expressions of a breakdown of the mother-child relationship.

This history of bed-wetting is only one of the many possible reasons for the appearance of this symptom. Bed-wetting can be simply caused by neglect; it can, on the other hand, be a complicated neurotic expression and as such only one symptom in the syndrome of a neurosis. But the wetting and dirtying which became one of the stumbling-blocks of billeting are usually not of the most complicated type. Their beginning coincides mostly with the break in the child's attachment and it often disappears after a few months when the child has succeeded in forming adequate new relationships.

Autoerotic Forms of Gratification

In the early phase of infancy when the child is still 'all selfish' it turns to its own body as a source of pleasure. Whenever comfort from the outside world is slow in coming or seems inadequate he provides extra pleasure for himself by sucking his thumb. As he grows older other parts of the body, his skin, the body openings, rhythmic muscular

movements, the sex parts themselves are used for the same purpose. Under normal conditions of development these autoerotic gratifications play a certain limited rôle in his life. As the child learns to send his feelings out towards loved objects he also tries to derive his pleasures from them. When his attachments are interrupted he regresses, in this respect as well, to his former methods of finding pleasure. Thumb-sucking especially is very much in evidence in all residential nurseries. We can observe big children of 4 or 5 eagerly and intently sucking their thumbs as if they were infants lying in their cribs. There is so far not enough evidence to show whether the same really applies to the other forms of autoerotic pleasures such as rocking, masturbation, etc.

Greed

Under the influence of denial and regression the child's natural love for food, for sweets, for presents is often turned to insatiable greed. Demand for affection is transformed back into a demand for material gifts. Parcels from the absent mother or sweets brought by the visiting mother seem for the child as important as the mother herself. This does not only signify that the present can be used as a symbol for the mother; it means that the mother-relationship has regressed to the stage when the value of the mother was still measured in terms of the material comfort derived from her person.

Aggression

Under the present war conditions two factors combine to make children at the nursery stage more aggressive and destructive than they were found to be in normal times. One factor is the loosening of early repression and inhibition of aggression, due to the example of destruction in the outside world. The other is the return to earlier modes of expression for aggressive tendencies. The bigger child then becomes as unrestrained in this respect as he has been in his earliest years. Like a small toddler he will again be loving and affectionate at one moment, enraged, full of hate, and ready to bite and scratch in the next. His destructive tendencies will turn equally towards living people and towards lifeless objects.

Temper Tantrums

Return to infantile behaviour equally concerns the nature of the child's wishes and tendencies and the manner in which the child strives to get satisfaction for them. Babies can only announce their needs by crying, screaming, and kicking; they have no other means at their disposal to enforce the arrival of the desired pleasure. Bigger children can understand the situation with their reason, they can speak, ask, demand, they can alter their position by their own volition, can go and get what they want, *i.e.* they can actively bring about all sorts of changes in the outward situation. Normally their wishes should also already be felt with less urgency and despair.

When a child of three or four sets up a howl because the sweets he wants are not forthcoming or because a meal is later than his appetite demands, we have a right to feel that he is 'childish'. The

temper tantrums which are so frequent in all the residential war nurseries seem to be the combined expression of the regressive process along the whole line of educational achievement. The children throw themselves on the floor, kick with their feet, hammer with their fists, scream at the top of their lungs, and then suddenly turn 'good' again, peacefully suck their thumbs or get up as if nothing had happened. It means that they have returned from the sensible active attitude possible for the growing individual to the helpless and despairing passivity of their infant stage.

Abnormal withdrawal of emotional interest from the outside world

On our present experience we expect the state of homesickness to last any length of time from a few hours to several weeks or even a few months. When this period is over the child finds himself attached to new people in his new surroundings. The new ties may be less solid and more superficial than the original ones. As already described, the child starts his new relationships on a more primitive level, and some valuable achievements are lost during the process of adaptation. But however big or small that loss may be, the fact remains that normally the withdrawal of emotional interest will be temporary, and the child will return sooner or later to good relations with the outside world. It is different in cases where through a series of unlucky circumstances the child has to change hands more than once or twice, so that his new attachments are again wasted and he is deprived of his new objects as soon as they are found. His relations to people will then become more and more superficial and abnormal reactions of some kind will certainly follow. We were able to observe two cases of this kind.

Johnny had changed his place of living several times between the age of 2 and 3. Up to the age of 2 he had never been separated from his mother, and spent fourteen months of that time alone with her after the father had been drafted into the army. His wanderings began when his mother fell ill with tuberculosis and went into a hospital. She once returned from hospital because she heard that he was unhappy in the place where she had left him. She took him home to her relatives in the hope that she would be able to leave him there.

Since all her sisters had gone out on war work there was nobody to leave him with and she again found a private billet in the country. She left him there to return to hospital. In the meantime he had developed bed-wetting so that the billet would

not keep him. Again he began to wander until he landed in our country house at the age of three.

Observation showed that as a result of his experiences he had become completely and frighteningly impersonal. His face, though very good looking, was expressionless; a stereotyped smile would appear at times. He was neither shy nor forward, ready to stay where he was put, and did not seem afraid of the new surroundings. He made no distinction between one grown-up and another, clung to no one and avoided no one. He ate, slept, and played, and was no trouble to anybody; the only abnormal feature about him was that he seemed completely devoid of all emotion. For several weeks it was very difficult to get nearer to him in any way.

The ice was broken at last when he fell ill and was isolated with one nurse. Whenever his temperature was taken the nurse held him on her lap and put her arm around his shoulders to keep the thermometer in place. Until then he had been indifferent to every kind of fondling; this special position evidently aroused in him memories of being in his mother's arms. He became attached to the nurse, asked repeatedly for his 'temperchure', and found the way back to his feelings with the help of this incident.

The second case, *Sylvia* (3½), showed even worse abnormality. She holds the record with six different billets between the age of 2 and 3. Her parents are highly-skilled war workers who sent her to the country at the beginning of the war with her older sisters' evacuation school-party. She was unhappy in some billets, not well treated in others, and had to leave one place after the other because her foster-mothers fell ill, went to hospital, etc. In the end she became completely confused

and failed to recognize her own mother, though both parents visited in turns nearly fortnightly.

Her emotional withdrawal from the outside world was the same as Johnny's; all her other reactions were exactly opposite. Where Johnny showed complete lack of emotion she had emotional outbreaks of a hysterical type: fits of crying alternated with fits of laughter. Where Johnny was easy to handle, she was impossible. When she came to Netherhall Gardens she would not go to bed, could not sleep, would not eat, fought against being bathed, washed, dressed, or undressed. She had fears of going downstairs, of leaving the house, of entering again through the front door. Sometimes she would like to play with other children, at other times she screamed with fear when they approached her.

When she returns from a visit to her parents' home where she is now sent regularly, she tells fantastic tales about the events which happen there. Everybody pushes everybody else, her sisters hit her on the head, she is pushed into the fire and everything is burned up. There are no bombing experiences at the root of Sylvia's fears. She is one of the few of our children who escaped the London air raids through early evacuation to the country.

As a consequence of the shock of her repeated separations she has developed a neurotic illness which is so far difficult to diagnose. Hysterical symptoms alternate with phobic behaviour and compulsive mechanisms. The main feature is her withdrawal from the interests of the real outer world. Her expression is always worried, her glance fixed and stony. There is little hope that, like Johnny, she will find a natural return to normality. She is ill enough to need and receive psycho-analytical treatment for her neurosis.

Practical Conclusions

At first glance it seems from this material that small children have little chance to escape unharmed from the present war conditions. They either stay in the bombed areas with their parents, and, quite apart from physical danger, get upset by their mothers' fears and excitements and hardened and brutalized by the destruction which goes on around them and by shelter life. Or they avoid these dangers, are evacuated to the country and suffer other shocks through separation from the parents at an age which needs emotional stability and permanency. Choosing between two evils seems to be all that war-time care is able to accomplish for them.

Yet we should not be too quick in drawing such conclusions. That evacuation under

present conditions is as upsetting as bombing itself is no proof that methods of evacuation could not be found which would guard the children's lives and bodily health and at the same time provide the possibility for normal psychological development and steady progress in education.

Our case-material shows that it is not so much the fact of separation to which the child reacts abnormally as to the form in which the separation has taken place. The child experiences shock when he is suddenly and without preparation exposed to dangers with which he cannot cope emotionally. In the case of evacuation the danger is represented by the sudden disappearance of all the people whom he knows and loves. Unsatisfied longing

produces in him a state of tension which is felt as shock.

If separation happened slowly, if the people who are meant to substitute for the mother were known to the child beforehand, the transition from one object to the other would proceed gradually. If the mother reappeared several times during the period when the child has to be weaned from her, the pain of separation would be repeated but it would be felt each successive time in smaller doses. By the time the affection of the child has let go the mother the new substitute-object would be well known and ready at hand. There would be no empty period in which the feelings of child are completely turned inward and consequently there would be little loss of educational achievement. Regression happens while the child passes through the no-man's-land of affection, *i.e.* during the time after the old object has been given up and before the new one has been found.

Two of our children have expressed this state of mind in their own words, Bertram ($3\frac{3}{4}$) when he said: 'I don't like you. I don't like anybody, I only like myself'; and Ivan (5) when he said: 'I am nobody's nothing'.

Mothers are commonly advised not to visit their children during the first fortnight after separation. It is the common opinion that the pain of separation will then pass more quickly and cause less disturbance. In reality it is the very quickness of the child's break with the mother which contains all the dangers of abnormal consequences. Long-drawn-out separation may bring more visible pain, but it is less harmful because it gives the child time to accompany the events with his reactions, to work through his own feelings over and over again, to find outward expressions for his state of mind, *i.e.* to abreact slowly. Reactions which do not even reach the child's consciousness can do incalculable harm to his normality.

Objection might be raised that emergency war conditions do not allow considerations of this kind to carry weight. Still, it seems possible to base plans for 'evacuation in slow stages' on psychological convictions of this kind.

If children under five have to be evacuated unattended like their bigger brothers and sisters they should at least not be sent out under

harder conditions than the older ones. School children, even if they lose the connection with their homes, will at least retain the relationship to their school friends and to their teachers who go out with them. Under-fives who are sent to nurseries go into the complete unknown.

One could conceive a plan under which all small children would be collected in day nurseries. They would get attached to their nurses and teachers and know the units in which they spend their days while they still live at home. In times of danger these day nurseries would be converted into residential nurseries and would be evacuated collectively. Mothers who refuse to part from their small children could be offered the chance to go too as paid domestic staff. Experience has shown that only a small percentage of all mothers would choose to do so.

Under such conditions evacuation would lose its horrors for the young child and abnormal reactions to it would become extremely rare. To maintain the remnants of the parent-relationship so far as possible and simultaneously to prepare the way for the return of children to their homes after the war, parents' visits should be considered all-important. There should be little or no restriction through visiting rules. (In our houses parents come and go whenever their occupations leave them free to do so.) Provision should be made for the possibility of such visits, as it is made for all the other bodily and educational needs of the child so far as they are considered to be important.

It will be still harder to devise proper means of evacuation for small babies. If infants have to be separated from their mothers in the first weeks of life in the interest of war work, they had best go to crèches near factories where mothers can deposit and collect them. This again does not solve the problem of shelter-sleeping in times of danger. If babies go to residential homes these should be situated as near to the outskirts of the town as possible to encourage frequent visiting. With infants there are no 'remnants of a mother-relationship' to maintain and no memories to keep alive. The baby will have to make the acquaintance of his mother during the hours or days of visiting. There should certainly be some relation between

the frequency of visits and the ability reached by the infant to retain remembrance.

Artificial War Orphans

If precautions of this kind are disregarded, it should be realized that evacuation of small children will necessarily bring many failures. The children are saved from one dangerous situation only to be exposed to another. Children whose parents are actually killed as

a result of enemy action are generally objects of pity. Under the conditions of indiscriminate evacuation thousands of artificial war orphans will be added to the smaller number of children who are really orphaned by the war. It is true that these children's loss is 'only' one of feeling and attachment. But so far as their inner stability and their further psychological development are concerned the consequences may be no less harmful.

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Book Reviews

The Education of a Community. By H. G. Stead. (University of London Press. 5/6.)

It was a Saturday afternoon when I read this book. In the more leisurely days of peace, my Saturday afternoons were devoted to thrillers. I approached *Education of a Community* with the same sense of vicarious excitement. The blurb on the dust cover offered me adventure, and although a mere hanger-on to one of the despised fringes of the educational garment, I had long thought that the theory of education ought to give high intellectual adventure. I had seen the immense potentialities of the ordinary working boy and the frustration of those potentialities in all but a tiny fraction. The vision of what might be and what ought to be should surely arouse a passion akin to blood lust, it should sweep away difficulties and destroy complacency. And yet how dispassionate and how dull much of educational literature had proved to be. It is too often written for specialists about a specialized subject. Progress can only come when the Board of Education, Directors of Education, and teachers convince me—the man in the street—that they have a living faith and that they have plans to make that faith a reality. Dr. Stead has convinced me, although I disagree with him in much, and he has given me some of the excitement of a murder yarn. His indictment is a severe one, as it ought to be when it is brought against a system which is destroying the possibilities of a whole generation; he generously gives the clues for the amateur to pick up—the catastrophic transfer at 11+, the examination system, the lack of prestige of the teacher, the dead hand of the social esteem in which certain subjects are held. He omits curiously—perhaps because of respect for his employers—any reference to Education Committees.

But the first murderer in the eyes of Dr. Stead is lack of economic security; he insists with vigour and persuasiveness that as long as education is concerned with fitting youth to earn a living wage, it must be barren and negative. He reiterates again and again that education must have a purpose and that it must

provide adventure. The crux of the matter is whether Dr. Stead has clarified that purpose, for he would be the first to admit that without such a purpose education must continue to lack direction. He arrives at the same conclusion as Peter Drucker in *The End of Economic Man*; material rewards cannot give lasting satisfaction. But man must always be seeking some goal. Has Dr. Stead anything to offer but the development of potentialities?

In a book which covers such a vast field it is unfair to expect a complete philosophy, and perhaps the answer is implicit in the very title. Education must be for community and one of the first objects of the Scheme of Research, which Dr. Stead so wisely suggests, is the contribution which Education has to make towards true community, as defined by Professor MacMurray in his *Challenge to the Churches*. The conception of community as its ultimate purpose gives to education that spiritual value without which it must lack its full inspiration. For realization of full community life there must be experience during adolescence of free association under modified self-government; this is precisely the field in which the voluntary organizations have been experimenting, and it is to be regretted that Dr. Stead has not been able to consider the contribution which the Club Movement can make to his plan. Whatever the measure of its success that movement has realized with Dr. Stead that 'there are better ways of dealing with adolescents than forming a class and providing a teacher.'

Dr. Stead begins and ends his book with a challenge; put briefly his demand is that from the age of 2 until the age of 21 boys and girls shall largely be under the control of the Education Authority, not only as regards their education, but also in considerable measure in matters of health and employment. The power of the Education Authority to decide the shape of things to come will be enormous. Strangely in a book about democratic education there is almost no mention of freedom; would the immense increase in the power of the Education Authority to control the development of the individual endanger freedom? If so what are the safeguards?

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What is the sociological implication of the abolition of the Public and Private Schools, which would presumably carry with it, for all practical purposes, the denial of the parent to have any right in the choice of education for his children? Will equality of opportunity lead to equality of obligation? These are some of the many absorbing questions raised by Dr. Stead's absorbing thriller.

E. F. Piercy

The Principles of Teaching Method. By A. Pinsent. (Harrap, 1942. 9/-.)

The chief problem for those concerned with the training of teachers is to keep the gap between theory and practice as narrow as possible. It is often very wide. On the one side the young teacher works in the practising schools, often under conditions far from ideal for teacher-training; he is given advice and criticism, hints and tips, demonstration and criticism lessons. On the other side he usually attends a series of lecture courses on the principles or psychology of education, history of education, psychology, general method, special methods; these are frequently studied primarily as examination subjects and there may be little attempt, except in odd references, to link them with each other or with practice. Having escaped with a certificate, few teachers ever again open a book on the principles of teaching, and it is not to be wondered at. As Mr. Pinsent remarks: 'Too many books on teaching method make professional psychologists feel sick, and professional teachers contemptuous, or at best, mildly amused'. This is certainly not one of them.

The purpose of the book is to set out clearly the fundamental aims of education and those broad principles of educational psychology upon which sound teaching methods, in whatever type of school or class, must be based. It fulfils this purpose with admirable thoroughness and economy. It is unfortunately true that a great many books on education published in this country and the United States could be reduced to a third of their bulk without loss. I have found no example of padding or unnecessary discussion in this book. Its other chief merits are: (1) the organization of the material is exceptionally clear and methodical, full use being made of sub-headings, insets, and changes of type.

This facilitates both the first reading of a chapter to get the gist of it and the subsequent re-readings for assimilation of detail; (2) practical application of the principles is stressed throughout, as much in the selection of the principles themselves as in the illustrative examples in the text and in the exercises at the end of each chapter.

The Introductory Section deals with aims in teaching and the general principles of learning and development, Section II with motivation and interest. We find this section particularly valuable for its sensible and practical treatment of an area which many students find mined with controversies and psychologists' squabbles. Section III covers the main phases and aspects of intellectual development including a very thorough survey of transfer of the effects of training—as Mr. Pinsent points out, the most important single topic in the whole of educational theory. Section IV deals with the mechanics of teaching and learning and Section V with the practice of instruction. The latter gives the student-in-training clear guidance in the planning and presentation of lessons and criteria by which he may assess the effects of his work. The last section deals with the principles underlying social development and adjustment and their bearing on those aspects of social training and school government which are every teacher's concern.

Adequate reading references are given in the text and footnotes and each chapter has a list of books for further reference.

J. W. Tibble

Story-Tellers of Britain. By L. Du Garde Peach. (University of London Press, 1941. 6/-.)

There are twelve short plays in this collection, each intended as an introduction to the twelve outstanding books which they present, and together they are intended as a history of the development of fictional literature in England. First let us ask whether these telescoped dramatic versions will induce children to read these prose romances and novels. I doubt it.

I noticed recently a child take a copy of *David Copperfield* from the library shelves, remarking: 'It must be good, because there is a film of it.' A few days later she brought back the book, and said: 'I don't like it; there are too many boring speeches and descriptions in it.' She knew the story of David Copperfield. She would probably never know her Dickens. There is a tendency to-day to present literature on the wireless, in films, and in shortened dramatic episodes in such a way as to attract and interest, but not to satisfy with genuine creative experience. I do not think that this book escapes this danger. Children are not likely to find enjoyment in Dickens, Smollett, Scott, and Thackeray before they have reached the age when these versions would—or ought to—bore them.

Moreover, and this touches the second aim of the book, they are rarely interested in literary developments until they reach the sixth form. But even if one accepted this aim, one could not justify the inclusion

of More's *Utopia*. As it was written in Latin it failed to have the influence upon the development of English prose fiction which otherwise it would have had, although, of course, it is an important landmark in European renaissance literature. Again, children cannot understand this book until the sixth form. Another puzzle: What interest can Lodge's *Rosalynde* have to anyone except the literary student? One could, of course, hand it to children as source material. That brings me to the next point. Children are capable dramatists, and we ought more often to give them the old legends and romances as sources for their own plays. But in the middle school they are often shy of their own efforts, which are too naïve and intimate for public presentation.

Now here it is a field for a pen as good as that of Mr. Du Garde Peach. For this stage, the one for which I imagine this book was designed, we need many more plays; but written on original themes or romances hitherto untouched, plays which can be acted for their own intrinsic value, not because they serve any ulterior motive as an introduction to this or that branch of literature. The scenes from Malory and Bunyan come nearest to fulfilling this purpose in this collection. It is, of course, true that dramatization is the young child's method of bringing life within his own group; but when he reaches the adolescent period the need is not the same; and the longer narrative form of the novel should have a value for him quite apart from drama. It is a different form, and by now it matters differently.

M. L. Hourd

Christian Youth Leadership. By H. C. Warner. (S.C.M. Press. 2/6.)

In a recent broadcast to the Empire, Mr. Ivan Smith, the Australian commentator, described a visit to the Durham Lads' Council. He made it clear to his listeners that he had been deeply impressed and expected them to be equally impressed by a discussion he had heard on 'Religion in the Club'. It is significant that from the wealth of material at his disposal the broadcaster should select this topic for emphasis—the selection must have been made because it was obvious to him as an observer that this subject was giving the Lads' Council much food for thought and discussion. This goes to show how real a need there is to-day for a book such as the Rev. Hugh Warner has provided.

Let me say at once that *Christian Youth Leadership* is an excellent product of a mind informed and vastly experienced; every page reveals the author's intimate knowledge of the club ideal and the club problem. The book devotes no space to mere theorizing, but offers practical solutions to the much-discussed question of religion in the club—solutions which, if they are not the final word, are at least courageous and sound. Mr. Warner has failed to point as sharply as he might have done many of the excellent ideas he has to offer, but this is the outcome of his obvious (and successful) desire to shun the common pitfall of dogmatizing.

Having found in the book so much to admire one

NOTE TO READERS

This is the April-May issue of *The New Era* and there will be no further issue until June 1st. This step has been forced upon us by the new Paper Control regulations, and we are only glad that the contents and size of this number are such that readers will not be disappointed by this necessary change in our plan.—ED.

is wishful to go the whole way with the author and agree to his substitution of 'Christian' for 'spiritual'. He puts forward a good case, but after reading many times the points marshalled in support of it and admitting that 'spiritual' is too diffuse a term to be wholly satisfactory, one is still left unsatisfied and unconvinced. The answer to Mr. Warner's argument set forth on page 35 is found on page 48. But surely the fundamental argument against his case is sociological in character, namely, that no society is adequate which fails to integrate every section. This applies to the Youth Movement as well: the same training must be the basis of *all* youth work. There is, of course, another point involved. Like everyone else connected with adolescents, Mr. Warner realizes that we can't emulate Cæsar and his division of Gaul into three parts and view the individual as a physical or a mental or a spiritual being. We all realize the individual is one complete whole. Mr. Warner would not approve were all the emphasis placed on training a boy physically or intellectually, but he does not object to the weight of emphasis being placed on a religion as taught by one Church. We feel that Democracy is a sufficiently comprehensive basis for training, perhaps not democracy as we know it, but certainly democracy as we visualize it. Training for democracy is a spiritual process in itself. There can be no true democracy without an inherent spirituality, just as there can be no true education. Surely the answer to the whole problem is that God must be served in the beauty of that Holiness which is wholeness—a harmonious development of all man's faculties.

Mr. Warner has some excellent things to say about worship and about mere nationalism, but above all he has put his finger on the great weakness of so many who have become club leaders without adequate training. He states the excellent principle: start from where the adolescent *is* and carry the subject to its logical conclusions. To-day, the attitude of many 'leaders' is that of imposing an 'ideal' on a group of young people and leaving it in the hope that it will percolate downwards. I may be wrong, but I feel that the only thing which grows downwards is moss.

There are appendices to the book which are valuable, especially those dealing with topics for discussion-groups and with bibliography. By a clear statement of the results of clear thinking Mr. Warner has made a valuable contribution to a topic looming large in the minds of all club leaders to-day.

Randal Keane

ENGLISH NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Bulletin No. 2

April 1942

H. G. STEAD, Organizing Secretary,
St. Ermyn's, Ashover, Derbyshire

A fundamental change in the conception of the purpose and nature of education is taking place before our eyes. It is not many decades ago that the purpose of most educational effort in this country was to produce a literate people. *The School and the Community* To-day its purpose is to fit modern man to live in a modern community and that purpose implies a basic conception of equality and the possession of those attitudes and knowledge which are essential to life in a planned democracy. The method of education was, in the past, the method of instruction; hence arose the emphasis on the blackboard, the desk, the primers, all the paraphernalia of the 'chalk and talk' period. Now the method of education is seen to be in the provision of experiences for the developing child, from birth to maturity, which are of real educative value.

This change of purpose and method has brought with it vital changes in the relationships of the school, the home, and the neighbourhood. It is becoming increasingly clear to us that to profess to 'educate' a child by considering only what he does during five hours a day for five days a week for about forty weeks in a year is just nonsensical. The time so spent is just about twelve per cent. of the child's life during his 'school' life.

Two methods have, in general, been adopted by those who see the need for a change in method. Some have brought the outside community into the schools and methods such as the 'Actuality' method of Miss Fletcher and Mr. Cons have resulted. Others see the need for, as it were, taking the school out into the community. These methods are, of course, complementary and serve to illustrate our felt need to break down the barriers which have existed too long between the formal and informal educational provision of a community. The need for integration is apparent; there must be education of parents and the lay public in the meaning and value of that controlled experience which is school education, and

education of teachers to the view that school education is but part of a wider whole. This does not detract from the importance of the schools; rather it adds to their importance, for it widens their scope and adds to their value. Never was it more important to assess the relative parts played by the three major factors in the child's life—his neighbourhood, his home, his school. Never was the need for an integration of effort more apparent. Without it there can be no unity in the community and no unity of purpose in our actions. Those who can visualize the new society coming from the effects produced in twelve per cent. of a child's time for about twelve per cent. of his life are indulging in day dreams. This points to the need for thorough researches into the existing educational facilities—whether they are considered to be good or bad. There is an urgent need to know just which kind of experiences the child is gaining from his neighbourhood, his home, and his school. This is the only knowledge on which solid and lasting reform can be effected. All else must be rooted in prejudice or cloistered thinking. The school extends into the community—into its homes, its factories, its offices, its clubs, and its churches.

It is these considerations which add interest to two documents which reached the Fellowship Office on one day during the past month. One was the News Circular of the South Australian Branch of the New Education Fellowship. The following is an extract from it.

This Conference has been held and the following plan arose out of it:

It was decided to go back to the beginning and examine our basic assumptions. Why do we educate? What are we aiming at and are we getting there? Are we—parents and teachers—satisfied that the right things are being taught in the best way?

In order to expedite the real business the following points are put forward as axiomatic

for the purpose of the present series of discussions :

1. In the present stage of development of human society education should aim at fitting people (a) to live, (b) to earn a livelihood, (c) to live together in friendly co-operation and take a part in the work of the community.
2. A 'complete' democracy is accepted as an ideal for which it is most worth while striving. Our education should, therefore, be designed to take its place in such a system and there should be equality of educational opportunity.

THE QUESTIONS. On the above basis what is satisfactory in our present scheme of education and what is not? What changes do you consider necessary to bring the system more nearly into line with our aims?

THE METHOD. It is suggested that members decide beforehand which of the groups listed below interests them most so that no time will be lost in arranging discussion groups at the meeting. (Each group should consist of parents and teachers from public and private schools.)

Group 1. The Home. The Nursery School and Child Centre.

Group 2. Kindergarten. Infants' School.

Group 3. Primary School.

Group 4. Secondary School.

Group 5. Post Secondary School education, *e.g.* Trades Schools, Technical School, School of Mines, University, W.E.A., and other voluntary educational Clubs and Associations.

Each group will discuss the questions from their own point of view.

The following questions and statements are supplied as worth considering :

Common to all groups. Between what ages should formal education be compulsory? Ratio of time spent at school to time spent at home. Free periods; are there any? Should there be any, and if so, how many? Homework. Is the number of schools (in your groups) adequate? Are the classes too small, too large, or optimal? Are the right things being taught? Are the methods used compatible with modern knowledge and experience? Is sufficient time given to the study of social and 'cultural' subjects? Ethics. Do your plans take in the smaller country towns? What do you think of the Community Centre? School environment.

Specialized Topics.

Group 1. At what age should children begin to attend nursery school or child centre? What proportion of the child population should pass through such schools or centres? How does the extension of the nursery school idea square with the family as the unit of our Society?

Group 2. What ground do you cover and what methods do you use? Is the 'break' to the next group made at the right time (8 in public schools, 10 in private schools), or is it necessary at all?

Group 3. Should the method used in infants' schools

be carried forward right through the primary school? Should there be greater freedom and activity? What is the optimum size of a class? Influence of the Q.C. At what age should the break between primary and secondary schools be made?

Group 4. Should the education between 12 plus and 15 be broad and general? Should there be different types of education for this age-range to suit individual needs? Should there be a grading into streams according to the scope and speed (rather than the content)? When should specialization begin? Free periods. Content of curriculum. To what extent should matriculation requirements influence the curriculum?

Group 5. When should full-time compulsory education cease? Continuation schools. Technical education. Is sufficient attention given to education for citizenship in the post-secondary stages—University, School of Mines, etc., Matriculation. Co-ordination, through education officers of Voluntary Clubs which carry out educational work. Community centres.

Here is a clear recognition of the widening scope of education and a good indication of the necessary spade-work that has to be done.

The second document comes from one of our own members—Mr. David Jordan. He is putting his knowledge and experimental mind

at the service of members of the N.E.F., and Mr. C. H. Hamilton, of Pontypridd, who is endeavouring to form a

group in that area, had seen the need for a survey of the field of education as it exists to-day as a preliminary to constructive work. Mr. Jordan co-operated by drawing up a tentative scheme of enquiry. Though drawn up for Monmouth, this is a document which will obviously be of service to other members engaged in similar work; it is therefore reproduced here :

1. **Pre-School Services.** Clinics, crèches, etc. (war-time nurseries).

2. **School Services.**

(a) *Nursery School*—Extent of provision compared with child population. Type of buildings. Equipment. Staffing (with special reference to ratio of trained and untrained workers). Age-range dealt with. Facilities for nursery school training, *e.g.* encouragement of post-Secondary School pupils to undertake the work as preliminary training. Medical Care. For further information and up-to-date statistics refer to Mrs. Warren, Nursery School Association of Great Britain, 8 Endsleigh Gardens, W.C.1.

(b) *Infants' Schools*—Type of class-room provision and equipment. Ratio of supplementary,

uncertificated teachers, etc. Sanitary arrangements, washing and drying facilities, school meals, transport, number of Infants' Classes as a part of small rural schools as opposed to Infants' Schools proper. Medical Care.

- (c) *Junior Schools*—As separate entities or as parts of Infants' or Senior Schools. Other headings as for Infants' Schools. Methods of selection for post-primary education, e.g., type of examination (use of intelligence tests, school records, performance in English and arithmetic, personal interview, relative weighting of those various factors). Influence of the examination on the Junior School curriculum (? homework for 'scholarship classes').
- (d) *Senior Schools*—Repeat relevant headings as for previous sections. Extent of re-organization in the county. Influence of dual control in perpetuating the 'all-standard school'. Facilities for practical work. Rural bias in country areas. Facilities for use of special equipment such as wireless, cinema, epidiascope, picture circulation scheme, library facilities, etc., sports facilities, and provision of equipment. Playground space, playing-fields, etc. Use of school records.
- (e) *Secondary Schools*—Proportion of Special Place and fee-paying pupils. Income scale for fee-payers and maintenance grants. For methods of selection see Junior Schools. Preparatory Departments. Proportion of secondary school places compared with school population. Extent of co-education.
- (f) For all schools note staffing ratios, comparative per-capita allowances, provision for psychological guidance, vocational guidance (extent and type of provision). Medical attention, with special reference to availability of medical record cards in schools. (? are they intelligible to the layman.)
- (g) *Youth Activities*—Extent of provision of youth centres, recreational centres, evening institutes, day continuation classes; situation of youth centres in relation to centres of population. Proportion of youth taking advantage of facilities. Contact between youth clubs and school. Constitution of County Youth Committee. Extent of co-operation with voluntary bodies. Facilities for training youth leaders. For further information and recent statistics and trends refer to Mr. Gordon Ette, Rowland Hill S.B. School, Lordship Lane, Tottenham, N. 15. (He is chairman of the National Youth Committee. Mention my name when writing.)
- (h) *Adult Education*—Bodies providing adult education, W.E.A., university extension lectures, extra-mural classes, etc. Facilities for continued technical education, commercial education, recreational activities at evening institutes. Assistance to bodies such as Women's Institutes, Community Centres, etc. Library facilities.

Information for all sections can be obtained from pamphlets published by the National Union of

Teachers, Toddington Manor, Toddington, Gloucestershire. (Write to Mr. A. E. Henshall.) For comparative statistics see Board of Education Statistics published by H.M.S.O., Kingsway, W.C.1, and the Year Book of Education, published annually by Evans Bros. The 1936 Year Book should be consulted for an article by S. J. Chatterjee, which will be invaluable as giving fruitful lines of enquiry and comparative statistics for the U.K. For Mental Defectives see The Central Association for Mental Welfare, 24 Buckingham Palace Road, S.W.1. I have not included Approved Schools, probation work, and provision for juvenile delinquents. These should be included for an adequate survey. For local survey work of a comparative nature, I understand Mrs. Clark, of Norwich, is sending on a pamphlet with a suitable and adequate bibliography.

I suggest that the arrival of these two documents by the same post, but originating at geographical extremes of the world, is of real significance. It indicates the movement that is taking place and what is of greater importance, it indicates the determination to obtain basic knowledge as a preliminary to planned action.

The Easter Conference is now taking shape and bookings are coming in. It will take the form of a comparative study of education in various countries. The speakers will be Mr. J. A. Lauwerys (U.S.A.), Mrs. Beatrice King (U.S.S.R.), Mr. C. S. Wang (China), Dr. Castillejo (Spain), Dr. F. J. Schonell (Australasia). Comparative study is the one way in which those engaged in any field of enquiry can escape from judgments based on prejudice or upon the accidents of a particular place or time. When the need for more understanding is so apparent, it is a duty upon us all to seize every opportunity for acquiring that knowledge which alone makes real understanding possible. The lecturers are all experts in their respective fields with actual experience of the educational work they will describe. Ripon is an interesting and enjoyable centre; the town itself and the country beyond it, alike present interesting features. It is easy of access from Leeds. The number of vacancies is strictly limited and it is hoped that they will all be taken up.

Groups To those given last month the following should be added:

Alcester—Miss M. Tilley, 18 Priory Road, Alcester.

Meetings were held at Welwyn Garden City and at Luton on March 24th and 25th respectively. Information about these groups can be obtained from Captain Lothian Small, 122 Ashcroft Road, Luton.

Can any member suggest a really good place for the Summer Conference? It should be centrally situated, be attractive, and provide accommodation for about 200 members. At Christmas the Fellowship met in the West, and this Easter it will meet in the North. It is the turn of the 'Home Counties' or thereabouts. Oxford and Cambridge are full this year. A place is needed to which most members can get without undue travelling. Can anyone help?

Classified factual information on current trends would be welcomed by the Organizing Secretary. There is an urgent need to collect and record such information *now* and not to leave any assessment of it until later. The following are a few of the points upon which such information is necessary:

- (a) **Nursery Centres**—numbers established—numbers attending—staffing arrangements—equipment—provision for meals—hours—effect on family life—occupations of parents sending children, etc.
- (b) **Communal Feeding**—Number of centres open for (a) general public,

(b) school children. Typical menus; numbers in attendance; cost of meals to clients; cost of service to rates. Occupations of people using them; average wages of families using them; any effect on home or social life.

- (c) **Youth Movement**—Type of provision made; numbers catered for; numbers not touched. Results; registration figures. Clubs at work and clubs apart from work—how do young workers regard each?

These are only typical examples. There are a multitude of others arising out of evacuation and other war-time conditions which will supply invaluable data in the post-war reconstruction years. Sociology is a young science: the great need is for accurate, carefully recorded *facts*. The members of the Fellowship are widespread enough to enable a good sample to be taken from the whole population. Here is a job in which *every member* can participate. Collect your facts with care and send them along and so help to build up a record which will be of the greatest value.

A small boy had a pen of bantams. Being disappointed in the size of the eggs they produced, he secured an ostrich's egg and hung it in their house, attaching to it a card upon which he had written 'Keep your eye on this—and do your best'.

One member has enrolled *three* new ones. Children often give sound advice to adults.

N.E.F. News

The Children's Charter Conference

International Headquarters and the English Section of the N.E.F. are collaborating in arranging a conference to draft a Children's Charter at Caxton Hall, London, on April 11th and 12th. The conference will be attended by distinguished educators appointed by the Allied Governments now established in London and by delegates from Education Authorities, leading educational organizations and representatives of teachers' organizations in the Allied countries.

The Rt. Hon. R. A. Butler, President of the Board of Education, has kindly consented to deliver the opening address, and Their Excellencies Dr. Wellington Koo, M. Maisky, and the Hon. J. G. Winant hope that their engagements will permit them to be present.

This conference will continue the work done at

**From International Headquarters,
Postal Address: BCM/NEWED, London, W.C.1**

the N.E.F.'s Eighth World Conference held at Michigan University, U.S.A., last July, when a Statement on Educational Reconstruction was drawn up.¹

The final name of the Charter will be decided at the conference. Some readers will have worked for the Children's Charter adopted by the League Assembly at Geneva, 1924. Translated into some 50 languages this Charter has inspired valuable work all over the world. Another interesting Children's Charter was issued by the Labour Party in 1937.

In attempting yet another Charter we seek to gather up all that we have learned since the last war and utilize it in such a way that the needs of children and young people receive adequate consideration in all post-war planning.

¹ Copies free on application to International Headquarters, N.E.F., 50 Gloucester Place, London, W.1.

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THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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Education in a Racial-Caste Society

R. F. Alfred Hoernlé

Professor of Philosophy, University of Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg, Union of South Africa

THE question which I have been asked to answer is: How far are equal educational facilities available for all children in South Africa? And, like other contributors from the Dominions,¹ I have been instructed to cover, in my answer, also two subsidiary questions, viz. (a) whether there is a tendency to the growth of private schools for the children of the wealthy; and (b) whether State schools make an attempt to supplement a 'very poor and uncultured home background'.

The range of 'educational facilities' covers, for the purpose of my argument, Primary Schools, Secondary Schools, Universities, and Technical Colleges (including Domestic Science).

The condition that these facilities should be 'equally available' to 'all children', I propose to interpret as requiring that every child, irrespective of race, religion, poverty, distance of home from school, has access to the amount and kind of training for which he is fitted.

On this interpretation, no section of the South African population enjoys equal facilities for all its children, but one section, viz., the dominant White section, comes much nearer to a realization of the ideal than do the other three sections, viz. the Africans (Bantu), the Cape Coloured People, and the Indians.

Let me begin with a brief state-

ment of the setting within which the provision of educational facilities in the Union of South Africa must be seen and evaluated.

The Union is a *multi-racial* and *multi-cultural* society.

I have already enumerated the four chief 'racial' groups, and add now the numbers in round figures: Whites, 2,100,000; Africans, 6,500,000; Coloured, 750,000; Indians, 240,000 (and fractions of other Asiatics, e.g. Chinese).

These four groups are internally complex. The White group—apart from containing about 5 per cent. of Jews, and fractions from all nations of Europe and the Near East (a 'Syrian' counts as 'White', even though he may have to fight for the recognition of his claim)—consists of about 1,200,000 Afrikaners ('Dutch' South Africans, speaking Afrikaans), and about 750,000 English-speaking South Africans. The great majority of the Non-Jewish Whites are classified as 'Christians', but are denominationally divided: three distinct Dutch Reformed Churches; Anglicans (two distinct churches!); Methodists; Presbyterians; Congregationalists; Seventh Day Adventists; etc.; Quakers, too, and Christian Scientists.

The African population is split up into a number of tribes, whose speech falls into four major language-groups. The converts to Christianity among them reflect all the denominational divisions among White Christians. The rest still

follow, more or less, their traditional ancestor-worship and are classed as 'heathen'.

The Coloured are a group of mixed breed, mainly European-Hottentot, but containing many other racial ingredients, and speaking the two White languages, English and Afrikaans. They are all Christians of one sort or another.

The Indians are divided, by religion, into Mohammedans and Hindus, and, by language, into a Tamil-speaking and a Gujarati-speaking group (omitting insignificant minorities of other faiths and languages).

Anyone facing this complexity of races and cultures (languages, religions) will appreciate that to provide this human medley with 'equal educational facilities' is, to put it colloquially, a 'tall order'. Indeed, a moment's reflection shows that a troublesome ambiguity lurks in the little word 'equal'. We may interpret it either so as to provide for recognition in the educational system of at least all major differences of language and religion, or so as to provide both children who are 'White' and children who are 'Non-White', in race, language, religion, with equal access to education of a European type.

Let me illustrate: the two main European groups enjoy approximately 'equal' educational facilities in respect of availability of schools and Universities, but they segregate their children according to language

¹ For other contributions in this series, see *New Era*, February, 1942.—Ed.

and religion. There are English-medium schools and Afrikaans-medium schools; English-medium Universities and Afrikaans-medium Universities. The children in the Afrikaans-medium institutions belong overwhelmingly to one or other of the three Dutch Reformed Churches; the English-medium institutions, in addition to having groups of Afrikaner students, take care of other Protestant denominations, Roman Catholics and Jews. In each group, the language of the other group is taught like a foreign language, and the learning of it is optional in the Secondary Schools. The option is, however, commonly exercised. This educational segregation on language-lines would be quite complete, if it did not so happen that the two Medical and Engineering Schools of the Union are located in two English-medium Universities, viz., Cape Town and Witwatersrand. Logically enough, the Afrikaners are agitating for an Afrikaans-medium Medical School at Pretoria, and have begun an Afrikaans-medium Engineering School at Stellenbosch. Few educational institutions are fairly and squarely bilingual in their instruction, like the famous Onderstepoort Laboratories for Veterinary Science and researches into the improvement of plants and animals and the control of agricultural pests. Recently, a strong movement has arisen for 'Dual-medium' schools, in which every child is to learn some subjects through English and others through Afrikaans, thus using the schools to promote the bilingualism to which the White population has committed itself in theory. (In practice, the English-speaking population tends to be unilingual, whilst the Afrikaans-speaking section is much more nearly bilingual.) Actually, no strictly 'dual-medium' school, at present, exists, but there are a few 'parallel medium' schools, in which English-medium and Afrikaans-medium classes go on, side by side, in the same building.

It will, thus, be seen that, if we interpret the principle of 'equal educational facilities', with reference to the two 'official' languages of the White South African population, as requiring that English-speaking and Afrikaans-speaking children should be able to learn every subject of the school- or University-curriculum through their

respective languages, the Afrikaner child does not have 'equal facilities', in that, if he wants to become a doctor or an engineer, he has to take his training through the medium of English, whereas the English-speaking child — if his parents are foolish enough to wish this, and many are — can qualify for any career, except the Civil Service and Teaching in Government Schools, through the medium of English only.

The largest of the European minorities, viz., the German, used to maintain German-medium schools, up to the outbreak of the war, in various urban centres; and German-medium Schools are still functioning as part of the official educational system in the Mandated Territory of South West Africa.

When we ask whether for Non-European children education through their home-language, or 'mother-tongue', is available, the answer varies according to the group. The Coloured, as already stated, speak one, or both of the official European languages: they raise no problem. The Indians, if they wish their children to attend a State school, must have them educated through one of the White languages, generally English. There are private Indian schools for the keeping alive of Tamil and Gujarati, but owing to the poverty of the Tamil-group, their private schools have a hard struggle, while the Gujarati-speaking Mohammedans in their private schools teach also Arabic (for reading the Koran; cf. the separate classes maintained by orthodox Jewish groups for the study of classical Hebrew) and Urdu. The African children suffer from the fact that the African languages, in spite of the beauty and flexibility of many of them, have not yet developed an adequate vocabulary for the technical, scientific, philosophical concepts of European civilisation. For the same reason, corresponding textbooks in Native languages are wholly lacking. Hence, African children have to receive all 'higher' education (Secondary and University), and even the later stages of Primary education, through the medium of a European language, usually English¹). The principle

¹ E.g. a large Primary school in a Kimberley location runs parallel classes for the first three years through the media of Sechuana, Xhosa and Afrikaans, and then switches to English for all classes.

of 'mother-tongue' instruction during at least the first three years of the primary school course is nowadays being strictly enforced in schools for Africans, but it meets with resentful criticism from many Africans who hold that a speaking knowledge of White languages is essential to every African who has to earn his living, for part of his life at least, in the service of a White master, and that a reading knowledge of English is essential to the 'educated' African who, through this European language, seeks to make his own the special knowledge to which, in the eyes of the Africans, the White man owes his 'superiority'. In these circumstances, it is not practicable to provide for anything beyond the most elementary education through any African language, and in *this* sense 'equal facilities' for European and African children are not available, and will not be for centuries to come.

A detail or two to complete the picture. The African tribes outside the urban areas still maintain their own traditional system of (non-literary) education, culminating in the Initiation-schools at puberty. Many African children, especially boys, leave European (Missionary) schools, to the chagrin of the Missionaries, in order to attend these Initiation schools, and if they return to the White man's school at all, prove generally more difficult to handle. The problem arising here from the clash of two cultural traditions, each with its own type of 'school', is by no means easy to solve. And, I venture to think that it is a problem forgotten by those who, in asking about 'equal educational facilities', are tacitly assuming either that South Africa is culturally homogeneous, or else that its only educational problem is the 'acculturation' of the non-Europeans by an education of the European type, implying the more or less complete destruction of the pre-existing 'primitive' African culture and of the education which it had developed for its own perpetuation.

Again, among the Indian community, the still widespread objections to the education of women keep the majority of girls from any access to schools, even when such schools are available; and the purdah-system maintained among orthodox Mohammedans operates even more strongly in the same

direction. Educational facilities, we see here, may be unavailable, not only because none exist, but also because people refuse to use those which do exist.

So far I have tried to show that, in a multi-racial and multi-cultural society, such as we have in the Union of South Africa, the concept of 'equal' educational facilities is a very treacherous one in application. There is no complete equality in the recognition of differences of language and other culture-elements even among the White population: there are wide inequalities in this recognition for the groups constituting the Non-European majority of the population.

Put positively, the Union's educational policy and system reflect the fact that it is, in principle, a racial-caste society, in which political power, educational opportunities, social and economic privileges are concentrated in the dominant White caste. (For a detailed analysis of the structure and functioning of this society, I must refer those who are interested to my Phelps-Stokes Lectures on 'South African Native Policy and the Liberal Spirit', published by the University of Cape Town, 1939.) The slogan, 'South Africa a White man's country', expresses the determination of the White group to maintain itself at the top of this

racial-caste structure. The primary concern of the White caste is to maintain for its own youth an educational system of European type, *i.e.*, an education for the propagation of European culture among European children. So far as the White caste has an educational policy for the children of the Non-White majority, it is to extend to them, too, an education of the European type, though on a much restricted scale. What this means, in practice, was oddly illustrated for me when, recently, I paid my first visit, as newly-appointed 'Superintendent', to two newly-established Secondary Schools for Native children in two of Johannesburg's Native Locations. In a History lesson on the Reformation, in Form I, I found the teacher expounding to a class of some 25 children (representing among themselves five different Native languages), without the help of a map of Europe, the fate of the Waldensians! In Form II, next door, the teacher was struggling to interpret Shelley's 'Ode to a Skylark'. There are not many White South African children who can read this famous poem with appreciation and understanding. And, incidentally, there are no larks in South Africa.

The motives behind this policy are partly missionary: if converts

are to have access to the Bible they must learn to read. Partly, they are humanitarian: the urge to communicate to, and share with, the backward and unprivileged, the best that we Whites have to give—our culture. Partly, they are utilitarian: the Native who has learned to understand and speak his White master's language(s) and to handle the tools and even machines (*e.g.* motor cars) of White civilisation, is a more useful servant.

But, these motives are qualified, on the one hand, by misgivings about the destruction of non-European culture-values through 'Europeanisation'; and, on the other hand, by fears lest the educated Non-European, in the name of 'equal' rights for all civilized men, claim to share the White man's political, social, economic privileges; or, in other words, demand the abolition of the racial-caste society.

In this ambivalent situation, progress in the extension of European-type education to Non-Europeans is inevitably slow, the more so as the extreme poverty of the mass of Non-Europeans (owing partly to 'colour-bars') would throw upon European taxpayers the main financial burden of a rapid extension of Non-European education.

[To be concluded in the July issue.]

The Training of Teachers

J. A. Lauwerys

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IN last January's issue of *The New Era*, Mrs. Herbert, of the Manchester High School for Girls, and Mr. Yapp, of the Manchester Grammar School, published an article on a subject of great and obvious importance—the training of teachers. Since this article achieved a certain *succès de scandale* it deserves consideration, though six months have gone by and though the authors evidently had in mind conditions of work and a type of training utterly different from those in any Training College or Department of Education that I have ever come across.

Much of what they say would have point if the present system of secondary education were already perfect and if the chief task of teachers were only that of coaching boys for the School Certificate and

for University Scholarship Examinations—a task admirably carried out in the Manchester Grammar School, for example. If this were so, one could quite well concentrate entirely, during the years of training, on problems of classroom order and on presentation of subject-matter; though, even then one would find, occasionally, intelligent students persistently asking rather fundamental questions of the type that Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp no doubt dislike.

Since the article itself was divided into numbered paragraphs, it will be a convenience to the reader if I follow the same system here; my numbers refer to those in the original article.¹

¹ I have not attempted to reply to questions 2, 4 and 10-18. In so far as these are not pseudo-problems, the answers are to be found in easily available elementary books.

1. *Is training necessary?*

No, answer the authors. 'Many good teachers have been untrained, and it is obvious that many people do very well without it.'

This curious statement might be compared with its converse: 'Yes. Many bad teachers have been untrained, and it is obvious that many people do very badly without it.' One hopes that neither Mrs. Herbert nor Mr. Yapp attempts to teach Logic or Scientific Method.

3. *Is the present system a good one?*

The answer is obviously 'No'. But certainly not for the reasons suggested in the article. Actually, within the present framework, only comparatively minor improvements could be made.

Incidentally, Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp here make the surprising

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- VI. Decimal fractions and division of common fractions

Contents of Part Two

- I. Revision of decimal fractions and division of common fractions
- II. Adding common fractions to type $5\frac{1}{2} + 5\frac{2}{9} =$
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statement that, after a few years, trained and untrained teachers cannot be told apart. My own impression is just the opposite, and I wonder whether they have any evidence at all for so sweeping a generalization?

5. *Can the system be good when the training departments are out of touch with the schools?*

Since this leading question is made the occasion for an attack on myself, I may perhaps be forgiven for replying to it rather fully. Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp say:

'It is commonly said that lecturers on education talk and write as if they had never set foot in a classroom (and in some cases they seldom or never have). This complaint can be illustrated by two quotations. The first, from an article by Mr. J. A. Lauwerys, lecturer in the University of London Institute of Education, runs: "If science teaching is to be really effective, each lesson must be conducted by the teacher as though he were leading a voyage of discovery into his subject." This called forth a letter from Mr. F. A. Philbrick, assistant master at Rugby School, in which he said: "I suggest that this is not an entirely honest description of the teaching of anyone known to us." We have no wish to decide the merits of this particular controversy, but we think it illustrates a state of affairs which is inimical to good training but which is bound to occur so long as lecturers in education do not teach. The student will be told that for his teaching to be effective he must do this or that, and when he joins the staff of a school he will find experienced teachers who laugh at the ideas he has acquired as quite out of touch with reality.'

The facts are these:

(a) The article from which the extract was taken was written by me after I had taught for ten years in secondary schools, and during my first year at the Institute of Education. I wrote as a schoolmaster, and merely attempted to summarize some of my experience. Strange that less than one year should undo the effects of ten!

(b) The sentence quoted was a paraphrase of Sir Percy Nunn's

teaching regarding the Heuristic Method.

(c) Mr. Philbrick's letter was part of an attack made by him on the teaching of 'General Science'. Later, in correspondence, he withdrew some of the remarks he had made.

(d) Mr. Philbrick's letter was immediately answered by several practising teachers, who supported my views. Incidentally, the idea expressed in the contentious phrase has been incorporated in a report issued by the Science Masters' Association and also in the Science Chapter of the 'Spens' Report.

Most of these facts, and certainly (a), were known to at least one of the authors of the article. My own feeling is that the whole article 'illustrates a state of affairs which is inimical to good training but which is bound to occur' so long as many teachers are ignorant of the theory of education. Training does help in that direction.

But let us turn again to the main arguments advanced. Actually, I feel rather puzzled by the phrases 'out of touch' and 'the schools'. What are *the* schools? A Public School, with splendid laboratories and rich facilities, a Secondary School in a small town, a Senior School in an industrial city, a Junior School in a new suburb? To say nothing of the dozen or more other types in which our students teach! And for my part, I spend two days out of five visiting schools of all types, listening to lessons and giving lessons, talking to teachers about their problems. I see more schools in a month than many teachers do in twenty years. Am I to believe that I am no longer 'in touch' because my view is no longer bounded by the walls of my own classroom? Or that I have become an idle visionary because I no longer think that my own advantages and difficulties are typical of those found elsewhere?

Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp also complain that advice is sometimes given by tutors in the Education Departments which runs counter to theirs. They go on (modestly?) to say that the tutor may be right but that something should be done 'to bring his ideas into a shape in which they can be put into practice'. But what if the tutor really is right? What can be done by him to change the mode of teaching of the teachers?

6. *Would it be a good thing if the staffs of training departments taught in schools, and vice-versa?*

Of course it would. We have worked out, at the Institute, a scheme which would make this possible on quite an extensive scale. It now needs only (!) the sanction and support of the Board of Education. In addition, we also need a practising school, run in close association with ourselves—something like the Lincoln School of Teachers' College.

At the same time, the problem is far from simple. A tutor in a Department of Education needs a considerable amount of specialized knowledge or else he will not be able adequately to guide or assist the students. Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp of course overlook this.

7. *Should not more attention be given to actual problems of teaching, at the expense of theories of education?*

Heaven knows, the students get little enough theory! Should it be abolished altogether? How can one teach pilots to steer aeroplanes without touching the theory of navigation? Or let us try to re-word the question in a different setting, say a medical one: 'Should more time be given to actual problems of healing, at the expense of theories of medicine?'

Science students at the Institute spend two-fifths of their time teaching in schools under close supervision. (Since the relations of the Institute staff with the teachers are close and friendly, the advice students get from us is not so very different from that which they get in the schools.) During the remaining twenty weeks of their training year they spend about two periods a day in lectures and discussions on the teaching of science and of mathematics. In addition, tutors frequently give lessons in schools, which are followed by discussions on the methods used, etc. and much time is spent in private discussion of 'actual problems of teaching.' The 'theoretical' part of their studies (*e.g.* Principles of Education, Psychology, etc.) is reduced to about one lecture a day.

8. *Should students be taught something of business methods and organization?*

I wonder what Mrs. Herbert and

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Mr. Yapp think we do? Actually, the suggestions they make (regarding cumulative records, etc.) were adopted several years ago in several large areas, *e.g.* Kent and Wiltshire.

Results, etc., have been published and are readily available, most of our students, of course, are acquainted with them. Dr. Oliver, Professor of Education at Manchester University, had a great deal to do with the development and application of methods such as those in which Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp show interest.

9. *Should not the training departments develop and circulate new ideas, so that they train those already teaching as well as students?*

A surprising question after what has been said earlier! When they try to do this, they stand in danger of finding 'experienced teachers who laugh at the ideas... as quite out of touch with reality', as Mrs. Herbert and Mr. Yapp would say.

HOWEVER, I have spent too much time in discussing these questions. It will, I think, be more profitable to draw up another list to which I myself would like to find answers. Any proposals for reforms in the training of teachers that one might make are conditioned by the answers given to them:

(1) What kinds of schools will there be in ten years time? Shall we still have two overlapping systems of post-primary schools (senior and 'secondary'), or shall we have an end-on system as in other English-speaking lands? Will there be Technical High Schools as well as 'Grammar' Schools? Will there be Junior Colleges?

(2) Will there be compulsory national service (for both sexes), say between the ages of 18½ and 19½? If so, what types of national service will there be? What will be their educational aims and effects? Will prospective teachers and university students be exempted?

(3) In what directions will Youth Services develop? Probably as many as 30,000 Youth Leaders will be needed within three years of the end of hostilities—where and how will they be trained? What relations will there be between the training of Youth Leaders and that of teachers?

(4) What criteria should we

apply when selecting prospective teachers? Should we expect industrial experience, foreign travel, experience of Youth Service work? How much stress should we lay on academic ability?

(5) What should be the duration of the University Course given to prospective teachers in various types of schools? Should *all* prospective teachers receive a University Course or should there be special Training Colleges? Is the present 4-year course long enough for secondary school teachers, in view of the fact that in many countries a 7-year course is considered necessary?

(6) Are University Courses, of the kind given at present, suited to the needs of prospective teachers? What reforms are desirable? What reforms are possible? Should there be a special degree for teachers?

(7) *When* should candidates for the teaching profession be trained? For instance, would it be well to send them into schools, to teach under the supervision of specially selected teachers, immediately after their academic courses, and then to bring them back to a professional college for a year or two years? Is it possible to devise a scheme whereby all teachers are compelled to take a refresher course every five or seven years?

(8) The serious study of education, like that of the other branches of the social sciences, is at a very much lower level in this country than in others. What can be done about this? How can we promote centres of educational research? Should we endeavour to set up a Central Council of Educational Research? If so, what sort of relationship will there be between such a Council, the Universities, the Professional Colleges, the Teachers' Associations? What can be done to persuade teachers to improve their practice in the light of new findings?

(9) By 1945 there is likely to be a shortage of, at the very least, 40,000 teachers. Will this mean 'dilution'? Immediately after the demobilization of the Forces, training colleges and departments of education will be flooded: what shall we do with all this magnificent material? Shall we introduce special short courses? How can we take advantage of the broken vicious circle (school-college-school)?

Such are some of the questions

which are now, no doubt, engaging the minds of those who sit on Committees which consider the problems of teacher-training—*e.g.* that of the Board of Education or of the University of London. To ask them amounts to asking what will be the pattern of the society which will emerge from the stress and storm of the present conflict, a conflict which goes far deeper than a war against an external enemy.

It is this pattern which will decide the form of our answers to particular problems. For example—when we become clear about our purposes and about the conditions in which we have to work, the problem of arranging an organic and really useful curriculum in an Education Department will appear

simple. The present relative chaos is no more than a reflection, at that particular level, of the prevailing lack of integration in our society.

Or take the problem of persuading really good students to prepare themselves for the teaching profession. Is it honestly supposed that this problem is to be solved merely by deciding that so-and-so instead of so-and-so shall select the candidates, or that 'better' people would be attracted merely by raising salary scales?

The true answer is that the problem to be solved is one of inspiration rather than of selection. When the community as a whole ceases to feel contempt or, at best, toleration for the teaching profession and begins to think of it as the noblest of all callings, then, and only

then, shall we get true improvement in quality. Again, can we expect to inspire vigorous and high-minded young people by holding before them the prospect of becoming school-certificate crammers in a society of backward-looking persons hanging on to shreds of past glory? Would that we were able to put before them a vision of a vigorous community moving to fresh conquests and using its schools as instruments for the reconstruction of its social life! If they could see such a prospect before them, then the very same students who are now often accused of apathy or of seeking only selfish security would prove themselves adventurous explorers, fit guides of a generation that would be the architects of a new world.

Teacher-Training and Adaptability

A. Pinsent

Lecturer in Education, University College of Wales, Aberystwyth

AFTER wading through a stream of books, reports and articles on teacher-training I have the impression that it resembles character-training—everybody is convinced that it is desirable but no two authorities can agree upon what to do about it. The reason is obvious. There is a fundamental disagreement about the teachers' proper function,¹ and until we can agree about this there can be no adequate theory concerning the most efficient method of training.

Is there an objective criterion of good teaching? I would suggest that it is adaptability, and for two reasons, one sociological, the other psychological.

Years ago all the Foreign Office personnel went through the most exclusive Grammar Schools, and all the domestic servants through the most exclusive Elementary Schools. Their respective teachers, also, were recruited from the same institutions. Therefore the preparation of the teachers was a straight-

forward process which could be organized according to a few constant formulae. Nowadays there is a possibility that some elementary school pupils may, in time, pass through the sacred portals of the Foreign Office; while some products of the exclusive grammar schools have actually become, if not skilled labourers, at least commercial travellers.

Moreover, the range of service open to any given teacher is much wider. A good student from a University training department may teach in any one of a half-dozen types of school—public, preparatory, secondary, technical, elementary, and (in the case of women) infant. The educational atmosphere, also, is changing. We know now, beyond a doubt, that children differ, often very considerably, in native endowment, educational attainments, local environment, and aspirations; and that the same child needs different educational treatment at different levels of maturity from infant to adult.

Thus, modern conditions and convictions make us attach much more importance to the characteristics of individual children and teachers, and much less importance to their conventional social and professional future. This means that a *teacher's adaptability must be the main test of his professional efficiency.*

Therefore the proper type of teacher-training is that which encourages the maximum adaptability in the trainees, and we should concentrate upon developing, in all prospective teachers, a broad foundation of professional theory and skill, using special types of schools and subject-matter as so many examples of the principles. Even if we prepare teachers for one type of school only, we still cannot avoid the emphasis on adaptability, since children of the same type of endowment and at the same age-level differ in their local environment, culture, and aspirations and therefore in their preferred modes of learning.

WHAT then is implied by this adaptability? When we are faced by a new problem we have in the main, two alternatives. We can reproduce *as a whole* a system of ideas and habits which has proved successful on previous, apparently similar occasions. On the other hand, we can analyse the present problem, determine (a) how it resembles, and (b) in what details it differs from previous problems, and then, instead of applying some previous experience as a whole, we can *choose certain elements* of knowledge and skill and *re-organize* these into a new sub-system most appropriate to the present situation. This second alternative is what is meant here by adaptability.

¹ The teacher's proper function is variously regarded. To some people teachers are cheap baby-minders to keep lower-class children off the streets. To others they are unofficial missionaries for organizing somebody's favourite brand of divinity as a school subject. The majority of parents expect the teachers to act as crammers for various examinations. Many politicians and parsons expect all this to be done without introducing dangerous thoughts into the pupils' heads—training children to work but not to think. Some reformers, on the other hand, seem to want the pupils to think but not work. Finally, the best teacher is the one who can do the work with the largest possible classes and the least possible cost to the Treasury and the rates.

Consider, for example, the teaching of arithmetic. We can present all the work in the way we have learned it ourselves, or in the way indicated by some favourite textbook (often two ways of saying the same thing). This is not adaptation. The skilful teacher makes quite a different approach. He first recognizes clearly the *common* logical relationships underlying various arithmetical calculations (*e.g.* fractions, decimals, proportion, percentage, and simple interest). It is these common logical elements that the pupils must try to master. The teacher knows, however, that they cannot all achieve mastery in the same way. Therefore he learns how to recognize the signs of different levels of intellectual maturity. He finds, also, what level of maturity is required for mastery of any particular topic; and how, in actual fact, pupils at a given level and with given aptitudes do master the logical elements in the most effective way. A good deal of information about these matters is already available for teachers who realize their importance and who know what to look for.

Thus, in the second case, the arithmetical work can be ordered, and presented, to the best advantage for any given set of pupils. What is true of arithmetic is also true with the necessary modification in detail, of other kinds of subject-matter.

ADAPTABILITY implies then that, although successive teaching situations differ in detail, yet at the same time they do embody both material and logical similarities in subject-matter, in pupils, and in school organization. Therefore it is possible, theoretically, since there are these underlying similarities, to apply experience gained with respect to one teaching situation, with necessary modifications in details, to other different situations, in the degree to which the cases are materially or logically analogous.

Now we can specify the *content* of a good training course and say what the prospective teacher needs to learn in order that this desired power to re-organize previous knowledge and skill may be a maximum.

In the teacher's academic subject-matter and general experience, emphasis must be placed upon

logical principles and connexions and not upon details of technical information. This holds for language and history as well as for mathematics and science. Clear realization of the nature of the scientific attitude and of scientific methods of thinking and acting is far more important for teachers, as teachers, than knowledge of physical constants or details of chemical manufacturing processes.

In professional theory we need to emphasise:

- (a) **General patterns of normal human development, physical and mental, and the degrees of possible variation;**
- (b) **Types of human endowment, intellectual and temperamental;**
- (c) **Characteristics of successive levels of maturity in different types of endowment;**
- (d) **Early signs of unhealthy or undesirable development.**
- (e) **What subject-matter, activities, and type of school organization produce the highest degree of favourable development in pupils of a given type, at a given level of maturity.**

In addition teachers need some introduction to social philosophy. All aspects of development have not equal community value (*e.g.* dishonesty is one aspect of development). It is necessary therefore to consider objectively the problem of social values. This can best be done, I believe, by the study of representative communities, past and present, their preferred values, the educational organizations they have evolved to give material effect to their values, and the corresponding results in individual and social development.

It may be objected that much of this knowledge is not yet available. That is not a valid objection to the scheme since a good deal is already available and the pace of research and discovery is rapidly increasing. It will increase still further when teachers become more interested in these topics and demand trustworthy information more insistently. These proposals have the double advantage of being a programme for educational research as well as a plan for training. There is much to be said for training teachers along the lines of research in their professional subjects. Their training will be more significant and worthwhile, and some of the teachers may carry on their own investigations particularly if the research work is co-ordinated and guided in a central bureau.¹

¹ Note the proposals on p. 48 of the March (1942) issue of this journal.

IT is not sufficient to show that adaptability is theoretically possible. We need to know what methods of practical training will produce it to the highest degree. This is really the old problem of transfer of the effects of training in a new guise. We want to know how knowledge and skill learned in one type of situation can be transferred (adapted) to different situations *without further special training*.

Educated laymen from Plato onwards have assumed that such transfer is a fact. Professional psychologists, however, have not been so sure. Twenty years ago most of them would have said that according to the evidence then available the effects of training appeared to be restricted, within very narrow limits, to the learning situation itself. Adaptability seemed in fact to be so small as to be insignificant for practical purposes. In that case, one teacher, one type of school, seemed the only possible policy.

During the past twenty years, however, much sound evidence has been accumulated which indicates that certain methods of training do produce adaptability, often to a high degree.² This recent work seems to provide just that clue we need to the right method of teacher-training, and it is surprising that so little notice has been given to it in this connexion.

Summarizing this evidence we find that mere repetition either of verbal subject-matter or practical dexterity does *not* produce adaptability.³ The practice *must be accompanied by effective guidance*. The function of this guidance is to make the trainees *explicitly conscious* of (a) the nature of the problem for which adaptation is required, and (b) the significant material and logical elements in their past experience which must be re-organized to fit the new problem.

This notion of training for explicit consciousness is quite common and easy to grasp. It is, in fact, the regular stock-in-trade of professional advertisers. Years ago, people lived happily to a ripe old age without knowing or worrying about a mysterious disease called 'night-starvation', but since the

² See references at end.

³ See particularly Sleight, Woodrow, Cox, Meredith, Langdon and Yates.

THE PRINCIPLES of TEACHING-METHOD

By A. PINSENT, M.A., B.Sc.,
University College, Aberystwyth.

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comic-strip advertisements have stressed the ghastly symptoms of this supposed deficiency-disease, many people nowadays see signs of it everywhere. The point is sufficiently obvious. If we want people to observe we must first make them wish to look, give them an unmistakably clear notion of what to look for, and then direct their mental gaze toward the most likely places for observing. The result should be this condition of explicit consciousness which has been shown to be the essential condition of adaptability.¹

Two further problems now appear. What do we want prospective teachers to be explicitly conscious of; and what is the best method of guiding their mental activity toward it?

The solution to the first problem has already been indicated above, as regards both academic subject-matter and professional knowledge. We have listed the essential elements of knowledge and skill of which the adaptable teacher must be explicitly conscious.

The solution to the second problem depends upon two psychological rules which have been emphasized particularly, in the experimental work on adaptation referred to. Full explicit consciousness requires an *active searching attitude of mind*, and the logical elements discovered in experience as a result of the search must be *clearly stated in words*. This verbalizing process seems to fix the logical abstractions and make them more readily available for the subsequent reorganization.² The highest degree of 'transfer' possible in the circumstances has been found to occur only when these two conditions are obeyed.

Here, again, experimental work has added significance to what any teacher must have noted many times in his ordinary work. Pupils and adult students can and do sit through lectures and perform practical work in a mood of passive acquiescence, and later memorize the knowledge and practical skill without necessarily in the least realizing the significance of any part of it. Graduate students can take down notes of lectures on

professional principles and pass diploma examinations in theory without realizing that this work can actually apply to individual children in real schools.

The best way of inducing the necessary attitudes in the students is, I believe, by presenting their professional studies in the form of questions and problems to be answered rather than platitudes to be memorized and repeated. The key question with which all professional courses should begin is: What is the good (or purpose) of teaching procedures and school organization? From our point of view this must be answered in terms of desirable human development. The 'good' of teaching is to facilitate the highest possible degree of desirable development. We now have to ask what are the known rules and signs of development and what are the best conditions. Now the elements of knowledge and skill listed above begin to acquire significance and fall into place in relation to the main purpose and to each other. The answer to the key question defines the essential nature of all teaching problems.

The first need then is to make the prospective teachers *development-conscious*, so that they look for signs of development and try to measure its rate and quality in all their dealings with pupils. If we adopt the correct method it is as easy to make teachers development-conscious as it is to make the general public disease-conscious.

While there is still a place for lectures to outline problems and give indications of methods, the main work is best accomplished in discussion groups. The students must be referred to their own first-hand experiences and to reliable sources of information. The function of discussion groups is not to provide free information but to check results of students' own work and perfect their immature methods of searching and organizing.

In view of a rather constant misapprehension, it seems necessary to add that these discussions need not be erudite. It is possible to get quite a clear notion of the essentials of Christian ethics by considering concrete instances of everyday conduct. It is not necessary to become a doctor of divinity on the way. Similarly the essentials of professional theory and practice

¹ To find how the process can be worked successfully in a teaching situation, see references to Cox and Meredith.

² See reference to work of Strasheim.

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can be grasped by the observation and analysis of concrete everyday instances of teaching work.

For the most effective organization of a professional course on these lines we need to have the relevant facts readily available for students. They have neither the time nor the training necessary to read the material scattered often in inaccessible journals and monographs. Their need could be met by the production of regular series of reviews and abstracts. This work has already been started in publications such as the reports of the American and Canadian Committees on foreign language teaching. Much more systematic publication of this type is required.

WE can now discuss more profitably the real function of school practice in a professional training course.

Since the students must analyse, abstract, and become explicitly conscious of the significant elements of their professional knowledge and skill they must observe, at first hand, concrete instances of different types of children at different age-levels; and of different plans of school organization. Hence the primary function of school practice *in the training year* is to provide opportunity for observing and collecting case-material for use in the discussions.

I do not want in any way to deny or minimize the importance of mastery of class management and teaching technique, but at the same time I do not believe that it is the business of the training departments to turn out finished technicians capable of doing *immediately* all the details of professional work in any one type of school. Flexibility is more important than finish in the modern young teacher, and headmasters must be prepared to do their share in the final training of the teaching profession. Moreover, to refer again to the experimental work on adaptability, it has been shown that with efficient guidance faster progress and a higher final standard of efficiency is attained, even though the time occupied in repetitive practice is decreased. In some cases the time occupied in repetition has been more than halved.¹ These

experimental facts have an obvious bearing on training students in teaching habits.

TWO last points. Since this guidance is the crucial factor in training for adaptability, it is obvious that students cannot be left to their own devices either in reading or practice. This will become less true for reading when professional text-books are arranged and presented with a view to this development-consciousness.² Even so, contact with an expert tutor is desirable since there are, still, university students who cannot read for meaning. They memorize words.

Finally, it should be obvious that the guidance necessary for explicit consciousness in the students can be given efficiently only by instructors who are themselves already explicitly conscious of the elements of professional knowledge and skill significant for adaptability. This implies not only wide practical teaching experience³ in several types of school organization but also philosophical and psychological insight, and a sympathetic understanding of young teachers' difficulties. Knowledge of the modern work on the conditions of training for adaptability would not be amiss as an additional qualification.

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² Incidentally our plan for training affords an objective criterion for the improvement of text-books—even in 'special methods' of teaching, since a specialised subject is really one aspect of human development. The specialist teacher needs to know what particular aspect of development he should aim to produce, and the best way of superimposing this aspect upon the general pattern of development. Special subjects are not completely separate problems.

³ See E. L. Herbert and Brunsdon Yapp. *New Era*, January, 1942.

¹ See particularly the work of Woodrow and Cox.

The Children's Charter, 1942

A two days' conference to draft a Children's Charter was convened in London by the New Education Fellowship on April 11th and 12th, 1942. The conference was well supported. It comprised representatives from nineteen Allied countries, delegates from the major educational institutions, and from Education Authorities in widely separated areas in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The Right Honourable R. A. Butler, M.P., President of the English Board of Education, delivered the opening address and on the platform with him was the Soviet Ambassador, M. Maisky. Only pressure of business or absence from the country prevented the Chinese and American Ambassadors from being present. The Chair throughout the proceedings, except on Sunday morning when Professor Fred Clarke presided, was taken by Mr. J. Compton, M.A., Chairman of the N.E.F. in England.

This was by no means the first such charter to be drafted, but its predecessors were drawn up in less desperate days. To-day, vast numbers of children are starving, without any real home, and exposed to disease and (in occupied countries) to deliberate political perversion. A realization of their plight (and of the remedial measures, both physical and psychological, that they need *now* but must wait for till the war's end) infused the speeches of some of the delegates, especially those from occupied countries. There was also some stirring of a feeling that the Charter was being drafted for a new age in which children and other minorities will not be beholden to 'conscience-money' for their rights. But an insufficient sense of opportunity, either political or even humanitarian, moved the meeting as a whole.

Two delegates made definite suggestions for a Children's Charter during the preliminary discussions. M. Genissieux (Institut Français) submitted the following five points, which had been agreed to by Professor Cassin :

1. All children are born and remain free and equal in rights irrespective of class, creed or race.
2. Their essential rights are : (a) the right to a healthy physical childhood in preparation for a healthy physical life ; (b) the right of each child to develop his particular innate mental faculties to the fullest extent.
3. The State, which exists for the benefit of the individual, has the duty to afford to all children equal opportunities of education, elementary, secondary and higher.
4. In all educational institutions some form of ethical teaching, religious or non-religious, shall be given, based on the dignity of the human person and on the brotherhood of man.
5. International educational co-operation shall be widely extended. An International Education office shall be established for the purpose.

Mr. B. S. Drzewieski (Poland) outlined the following principles for inclusion :

- (1) that there should be no social exploitation of the individual and that every child should be guaranteed the free development of his or her physical and intellectual potentialities.
- (2) that class privileges under whatever disguise should be eliminated from the national life ;
- (3) that the greatness of a nation should be judged by its cultural achievements and their extension among its people ;
- (4) that patriotism should be inculcated in this sense, and children educated in the spirit of international solidarity and world unity.

The Charter, as drafted by an international drafting committee and amended by the full delegate body, runs as follows :

The Inter-Allied Conference convened by the New Education Fellowship and meeting in London on April 11th and 12th, 1942, humbly requests the Governments of the Allied Nations to approve and adopt the following Charter for Children as a statement of the basic and minimum rights of children to be secured and guarded above and beyond all considerations of sex, race, nationality, creed or social position.

1. The personality of the child is sacred ; and the needs of the child must be the foundation of any good educational system.
2. The right of every child to proper food, clothing and shelter shall be accepted as a first charge on the resources of the nation.
3. For every child there shall always be available medical attention and treatment.
4. All children shall have equal opportunity of access to the nation's stores of knowledge and wisdom.
5. There shall be full-time schooling for every child.
6. Religious training should be available for all children.¹

The delegates who formed the Drafting Committee were as follows :

Chairman : Mr. J. Compton (Chairman of the E.N.E.F.).
Australia : Mr. Cyril C. Hillary (Western Australia). *Belgium* : Mr. Van Dyck (Chief of Belgian Primary Education in England). *China* : Mr. Chiang Yee (author of 'A Chinese Childhood' and 'Lo Cheng—the Boy who wouldn't keep still'). *Cuba* : Mr. I. de Agramonte (Attaché, Cuban Legation). *Czecho-Slovakia* : Mr. Milos Sova (Headmaster, Czecho-Slovak School, Shropshire, and Lecturer, School of Slavonic Studies, London). *Dominican Republic* : Dr. Ricardo Perez-Alfonseca. *England and Wales* : Mr. W.

Griffith (President N.U. Teachers) ; Sir Percival Sharp (Secretary, Association of Education Committees). *France* : M. Jean Burnay (Directeur des Affaires Judiciaires de la France Libre). *Greece* : The Reverend Archimandrite James Virvos (Principal of the Greek Cathedral, London). *India* : Diwan Bahadur S. E. Runganadhan (Adviser to the Secretary of State for India). *New Zealand* : Lieut. C. *Nolan. *Northern Ireland* : Mr. Stanley C. Clayden (Headmaster, Regional Secondary School, Limabady). *Norway* : Mr. Harald Hundvin (Principal, Norwegian Elementary School, Glasgow). *Poland* : Mrs. Olga Malkowska (Principal, School for Girl Guides, Scotland). *Scotland* : Mr. John Wishart, M.A. (Secretary, E.I.S.). *South Africa* : Mr. H. M. Moolman (Head of Public Relations Dept., South Africa House). *U.S.A.* : Professor Arthur Newell (American Outpost). *U.S.S.R.* : Mrs. Beatrice King (Chairman, Education Committee, Society for Cultural Relations with the U.S.S.R.). *Yugo-Slavia* : Professor Subotitch.

The six clauses have purposely been kept very simple, partly so that they may be translated without ambiguity, partly because they are easier to grasp and remember than a more elaborate and analytical statement would have been. The drafting committee proposes to meet again shortly to draw up an accompanying document which will define the purpose and scope of each clause and also, one hopes, will restate the claims of children on the community, not in terms of their helplessness, but of their potentialities.

CHILDREN'S CHARTER CONFERENCE RESOLUTION

passed April 12th, 1942, London.

To all teachers now suffering in concentration camps because of adherence to civilized standards and beliefs ;

To all teachers risking torture and death by keeping secretly alive the national spirit in the face of the oppressor ;

To all teachers looking with anguished hope for the victory of the Allied Nations in this war against barbarism ;

WE, members of this Inter-Allied Conference meeting in London, send a message of warmest sympathy and solidarity.

We know that you are playing a soldier's part in our common struggle against fascism, and with us will share in the final triumph of the forces of justice and humanity. May you continue unshaken and succeed in firing the children of Europe with your faith and courage.

¹ Copies are available from : The New Education Fellowship, 50 Gloucester Place, London, W.1.

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News from International Headquarters

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WEEKLY DISCUSSIONS

The weekly International Discussions on Education which have been held at London Headquarters from 1933 until the outbreak of war have now been resumed and will continue throughout the summer. The aim of these meetings is to create a centre where teachers and others from all nations can come together and discuss common problems.

The meetings are held every Friday at 5.30 p.m. at the Friends' International Centre, 37 Gordon Square, W.C.1. Anyone interested will be welcome. Topics arranged :

May 15—Incentives in Education (David Jordan).

May 22—Educational Problems of the Refugee Child (Minna Specht).

May 29—Effects of War upon Children (Ruth Thomas).

June 5—Experiments in Training for World Citizenship (Kathleen Gibberd).

Lists will be sent regularly on receipt of postcard to N.E.F. International Headquarters, 50 Gloucester Place, W.1.

NEWS FROM SECTIONS

Australia.—In New South Wales a Children's Charter Conference was held in March. The Minister of Education for New South Wales was scheduled to open the Conference. As part of a general campaign to foster co-operation between parents and teachers, the **South Australian** N.E.F. has held a series of Child-Study lecture-discussions.

In **New Zealand** the official *Education Gazette* is to have a special number on Parent-Teacher co-operation, and the N.E.F. has been asked to contribute articles and notes. The Wellington Branch is working on the question of the making and supplying of children's toys. A bookshop is willing to run an educational toys' section, and discussions are taking place with the disabled soldiers' shop about the making of the toys. N.E.F. radio programmes have been continued over the four commercial stations in New Zealand.

In the **United States** the rationing of tyres, war emergency duties, etc., make it more difficult for long distances to be traversed in order to attend a national conference. Therefore, the annual national conference has this year been broken into five section meetings, thus bringing the discussions to each region of the country. Professor Julian Huxley was the main speaker at one of these meetings. Another conference is to be held in New York during the summer to discuss education's rôle in the war effort.

English Schools to Soviet Schools

Representatives of English school-children from a great number of schools in London and the Home Counties and representatives of the Soviet School in London met in Kingsway Hall, on May 16th, under the auspices of the Education Committee of The Society for Cultural Relations with the U.S.S.R. and The Women's Anglo-Soviet Committee. The gathering gave a good idea of what is silently being done to build the way for a better understanding of our Russian allies. The making of the various gifts presented to the Soviet children must have taken up considerable time and the messages which were read by the English children, some for broadcast to the U.S.S.R., showed that much care had been spent in their drafting. A programme of short films on the R.A.F., Shipbuilding, Soviet Schools and Fighting on the Russian Front, and the recital of a message of 'All British Children to All Soviet Children' gave a serious sense of reality to the meeting. The young representatives must have brought back to their schools vivid and lasting impressions, and it is to be hoped that this vital work of creating bonds of mutual interest will be continued and ultimately be followed by the exchange of schoolchildren of the two countries, thus creating a more solid basis for the planning and building of peace.

E. W. H.

The Nursery School Association

The N.S.A. is holding two summer schools this year, one in Edinburgh from July 11th to 25th, the other in Oxford from August 4th to 18th. The subject of both is *The Interdependence of Health and Education in Nursery Years*. Both are to include accounts of the care of children in certain allied nations; and Edinburgh, which was a pioneer city in the early Free Kindergarten and Nursery School movement, should offer particularly interesting observation visits.

In Oxford, Dr. William Blatz, of Toronto, is to give a course on *Child Development in the light of modern knowledge and recent experiments*, and Miss Anna Freud, one lecture each week on *The Child's Relations with the Outer World*.

Full particulars and registration forms from :

The Organizing Secretary, N.S.A.,
Hamilton House, Marbledon Place,
W.C.1.

ENGLISH NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Bulletin No. 3
June 1942

H. G. STEAD, Organizing Secretary,
St. Ermin's, Ashover, Derbyshire

The Easter Conference was a success in every way except that it would have been pleasing to have had a larger attendance. There is no doubt that the necessity of holding it outside Easter Week accounted for the smaller attendance, and it is very much hoped that the need for this will not arise again. The Conference was lucky in its choice of a meeting place. The accommodation was excellent, and Miss Geddes, the Housewarden of the College, provided hospitality which was remarkable. The Fellowship is much indebted to her for the untiring efforts which she and her staff made for their comfort. The weather was magnificent, and the lectures all informative and stimulating. There was much promise, too, in the meetings held by those who were members of the E.N.E.F. The formation of groups and their working was discussed fully and progress should result.

On March 25th a most encouraging meeting was held in the High School at Luton by kind permission of Miss Sheldon, an old E.N.E.F. member. Mr. K. Webb, Headmaster of Luton Modern School, and Captain Lothian Small had done a great deal of intensive preliminary work, and a really representative meeting resulted. In effect two meetings were held—the first was addressed by the Organizing Secretary, and then, after a brief interval, the majority of those present at the first meeting remained for the second to discuss the formation of a group. Those present will long remember the speech with which one member of the meeting stated the urgency of the task. A strong group should be the outcome. The Fellowship is indebted to Capt. Small for his untiring efforts in its interests both in connection with this meeting and also with respect to other matters.

The day before the Luton meeting, one was held at Welwyn Garden City. Mr. J. B. Annand, the Headmaster of the Sherrardswood School, had kindly placed the school library at the disposal of the meeting and had prepared the ground. A packed meeting was the result. The Organizing Secretary spoke, and the meeting should result in a stimulation of interest in the Fellowship's affairs. Mr. Annand deserves the thanks of the Fellowship for the use of his School and for making all arrangements for this meeting.

On April 27th another successful meeting was held, this time at Derby. Miss M. Black was the prime mover in this effort. For some time she has been quietly at work making contacts and doing preliminary work. Some time ago, an informal meeting was held, and that held on the 27th April was the outcome of the earlier one. Miss D. Stead, the Headmistress of the Parkfields Cedars Girls' School, placed the Hall of her School at the disposal of the meeting, and again a good and widely representative gathering assembled—administrators, parents, teachers and industrialists. The meeting was addressed by the Organising Secretary, and it was decided to form a group. Miss Black and Miss Stead deserve thanks for their help in many ways and Miss Black is to be congratulated upon the successful outcome of her efforts.

So the groups spread, if slowly. It will be a great day when there is a group within reach of every member of the E.N.E.F., so that all members can, in the common task of building an educational system appropriate to the times, find that fellowship and opportunity for service for which we stand.

On June 20th a meeting is to be held at Exeter. After that we hope to have a group in the East (Norwich), one in the West (Exeter), one in the Midlands (Derby), and one in the Home Counties (Luton). Others are being considered and should soon reach the stage of formation.

Under all the circumstances, it does not seem possible to hold the proposed delegate conference to discuss reconstruction proposals this summer. But it is hoped to hold one for members of the E.N.E.F. (and any others who care to attend). It will probably be during the third or fourth week of August and at a place centrally situated. So far the place has not been definitely fixed, but it is hoped that negotiations now in progress will terminate satisfactorily. It is hoped that there will be as large an attendance of members as possible. A general meeting of the E.N.E.F. will be held in connection with the Conference at which important matters will be under consideration.

The Conference itself will take the form of a critical survey of the reconstruction proposals put forward by various educational bodies. These proposals (or the more important of them) are being summarised, and it is hoped that this summary will be available to all those who signify their intention of attending before the Conference is held. This means that the main function of the Conference will be to evaluate proposals made and to note points of agreement and disagreement in order that effort may be concentrated on the task of formulating proposals behind which the weight of all informed educational opinion can be rallied.

The suggestion is that the Conference, after an opening session in which the whole field is surveyed, shall divide into a number of Commissions, each dealing with one section of the field. Each Commission will have its own Chairman, Secretary and two reporters. One session will be devoted to a meeting of these officers in order to discuss the findings of the Commissions and to integrate them. A final meeting will bring the whole Conference together again to receive a complete summary of the results of the work of the Commissions. Provision will be made for a joint meeting of any two Commissions should the need for this arise.

Subject to revision, the Conference appears, then, to be likely to take the form indicated below.

SUMMER CONFERENCE

Subject

A CRITICAL SURVEY OF RECONSTRUCTION PROPOSALS

(A summary of these proposals of various bodies will be available for members of the Conference. It is hoped that it will be possible to issue this to those attending the Conference some time before it opens.)

Plan of Study

Commission A.

Pre-Primary School Child

Crèches, Post and Ante-Natal Clinics—Education for Parenthood : Nursery and Infant Schools — Relation of Home, Neighbourhood and School—Relationship to B.

Commission B.

The School Child

(I) Primary Education.

Age Range—Method—Content—Diagnosis — Buildings — Equipment—Relationship to A and C.

Commission C.

The School Child

(II) Post Primary Education.

The implementation of Diagnosis—School Leaving Age—Content — Method — Buildings — Equipment—Multilateral or unilateral schools ? Relationship to C and D.

Commission D.

Post School Education

The transition to employment in specialised studies—in College or Factory—Part Time Education—Community Education—Research — Universities — Relationship to C.

The Conference will meet as a whole for a preliminary survey of the field on the first evening. It will then be divided into four Commissions as indicated above, and each Commission will meet as shown below under its own Chairman and with its own Secretary. These Chairmen, Secretaries and two 'Reporters' from each Group will all meet together on the third day in order to co-ordinate their reports and to prepare a document for submission to the full Conference on the last morning. This should cover :

- (a) Points of agreement
- (b) Points of disagreement

both in each group and as between groups.

A possible time-table would be :

POSSIBLE TIME-TABLE

Day of Assembly

(Evening)

General Survey

First Day.

10 a.m. ... Separate Meetings of
5 p.m. ... Commissions
8 p.m. ... (A, B, C and D).

Second Day.

10 a.m. ... Meetings of Commissions
5 p.m. ... (Continued).
8 p.m. ... Social Evening.

Third Day.

10 a.m. ... Meetings of Commissions
(Continued).
5 p.m. ... Meetings of Chairmen,
Secretaries and Reporters.
8 p.m. ... General Meeting of
E.N.E.F.

Fourth Day.

Meetings of whole Conference to receive the Reports of the Chairmen.

Joint meetings of two Commissions to discuss common points of interest can be held, by agreement of the Chairmen and Members concerned, at 5 p.m. on the 2nd and 3rd days.

Reconstruction must be based upon knowledge and knowledge can only come through

Research and Reconstruction study and research. The following scheme is one

drawn up by the Organising Secretary. It does not pretend to be complete or to enumerate all the problems. It is an effort to survey the field and will have to be added to and expanded as research proceeds and more facts become known. But it is hoped that it will be useful to groups and individual members, both in preparation for the Summer Conference and in their own researches.

ENGLISH EDUCATION

A PLAN OF STUDY IN VIEW OF RECONSTRUCTION

(I) *The Sociological Background*

- (a) A study of societies with particular reference to their purposes and values. This might be *either* a comparative study of different societies existing to-day, *e.g.*, U.S.S.R., U.S.A., China, Germany, Great Britain, etc., *or* a comparative study of different stages of our own society, *e.g.*, Medieval Times, Elizabethan Age, the age of Merchants and Craftsmen, the Industrial Age

and a description of what was considered (as shown by practice) the education suitable for each age.

(2) *The Main divisions of the Field of Education*

- (a) *The Pre-Primary School Period*
- (b) *The School Period*
- (c) *The Post School Period*

(3) *The Pre-Primary School Period*

- (a) Length of Period : From pre-birth to ?
- (b) Provision necessary
 - (1) Ante-Natal Clinics
 - (2) Post-Natal Clinics
 - (3) Crèches
 - (4) Nursery—Infant Schools
 - (5) Education for Parenthood.

(c) The child lives his early years in concrete groups—Home, Neighbourhood and School. From the adults in these he obtains attitudes and patterns of thought and behaviour which influence him throughout life. It is such attitudes and patterns that he most commonly generalizes and applies over a wider field in later life.

(d) The problems in this sphere are therefore

- (1) How can desirable attitudes and patterns be developed ?
- (2) How can the educative work of the three primary groups be integrated ?
- (3) How can clinics, crèches, nursery schools, home and neighbourhood co-operate ?

(4) *The School Period*

- (a) This is divisible into two periods
 - (1) About 7 to about 12 ? (Flexible Ages ?)
 - (2) About 12 to about School leaving (Age ?)

(b) Should (a) (4) be a common school for all children ?

(c) *The diagnostic years (11-13) ?* This is a vital point. Diagnosis made here determines the needs of children during the next five or six years and therefore the kind of provision to be made. Up to this point all children require roughly the same kind of education based largely upon activity. After this age they need an education based upon their developing potentialities, *i.e.*, there must be a wide provision of various kinds of education. Equality of provision for all children means the provision for each child of that type of education which will develop his potentialities. Questions arising here are :

- (1) Methods of diagnosis
- (2) Methods of implementing the results of diagnosis

(5) *The Post School Period*

This includes in reality all the rest of life. The major problems are :

- (a) How to make early years of work educative for those who would benefit most by this approach.
- (b) How to give the necessary education and training in Citizenship and Parenthood to *all* young people at the appropriate time. Is it possible to provide a pre-adult year (20-21) for all to be spent in (a) six months concrete community service, (b) six months education in social and political matters, including parenthood? This would bring together at a vital moment those who had had widely diverse experiences and training since they left the Common Primary School and would provide an opportunity of integration which might be of great value.
- (c) How to ensure that technicians and specialists connect their specialized skill to the purpose of the Community. Would 5 (b) above help here?

(d) *Teacher Training*—Special points

- (1) Length of Course
- (2) Time and method of selection of students
- (3) Where the course is to be given
- (4) Pre-Teacher Training.

(e) *Youth Movement*—Problems

- (1) Voluntary, state or joint provision
- (2) Connection with factories and works
- (3) Connection with home and neighbourhood
- (4) Bridgehead into adult life.

(f) *Adult Education*—Problems

- (1) Provision for research
- (2) Integration of study and activities
- (3) Provision for travel, etc.
- (4) Provision for training in handling community affairs
- (5) The universities and their function in the Community.

- (6) The object is to see that sound attitudes are adopted in the early stages (concrete groups) and then to give plenty of controlled opportunities for the use of these, so that finally they can be rationalized and become principles upon which conduct can be based.

(7) *The Key Points would appear to be :*

- (a) *The early years*—because in these the basic attitudes and habits are formed and if they

are anti-social, difficulties are bound to arise later

- (b) *The diagnostic years*—because this diagnosis will disclose the range of potentialities and so determine the necessary provision in every area would not be the provision for the post-primary school education

- (c) *The late adolescent—young adult years*—because here is the time to educate the citizen and the parent and so start off for the next generation with increased hope.

- (8) Each area should be fully surveyed in order that it may be determined :

- (a) What general provision is necessary
- (b) What special needs are those of any particular area.

To apply exactly the same provision of equal opportunities.

If N.E.F. Groups will survey their own areas then some useful comparative data should be forthcoming.

- (9) The survey should be carried out systematically. It should cover :

- (a) *The Present provision*, i.e. the legacy of the past. It should attempt to determine :

- (1) The social movement which originated the provision
- (2) The function it was established to fulfil
- (3) Whether this function is needed to-day
- (4) If it is, how should it be expressed in view of the nature of present day society.

- (b) *Present Trends*, i.e. the direction of newly established services, e.g. Youth Movements (relation to works and homes), Communal feeding, crèches, evacuation, etc.

- (c) Necessary new provision

- (d) The integration of (a), (b) and (c) above.

(10) *The Curriculum*

There is no need to point out here the obvious fact that the curricula of all educational institutions, up to and including Universities, are in need of re-evaluation, if they are to meet the needs of modern men in a modern society. The major problems are :

- (a) Why the present curricula? A critical survey of the present directed towards a determination of the originating causes for the inclusion of the present subjects

- (b) Why the present allocation of time?

- (c) What new matter must be included and what of the old

retained? How can the whole be integrated?

(11) *Methods*

It is obvious that a reformed system and reformed curricula will demand reformed methods. Here the points for research are :

- (a) The origin of present methods and their value? Are the methods largely the result of a prevalent mental atmosphere, i.e. that of the factory system?

- (b) Can the methods of experimental schools be generally applied, e.g. Dalton, Montessori, Decroly, etc.?

- (c) What is the relation between the age of children and method used?

Are there methods appropriate to different ages?

- (d) Method in relation to the total environment of the School? How does this effect methods?

(12) *The Workers*

In the field of education there are Parents and Teachers (the specialised workers) and then Employers (and Foremen), Psychologists, Medical Men, Social Workers, Clergy, Club Leaders and ultimately all members of the Community. How are these related one to the other? How can their work be integrated and how can undue emphasis on one or the other be eliminated?

The E.N.E.F. lost most of its records in the Blitz, and these have now to be re-

Book List placed. An urgent necessity is a Book List. This should cover the whole educational field and should include pamphlets and reports as well as actual books. Material should be classified as indicated below :

- (a) General Educational Works
- (b) Education of the under 7's
- (c) The Primary School Range (7-12)
- (d) The Post-Primary Range (including Youth Movement)
- (e) Adult Education
- (f) The Training of Teachers
- (g) Psychological Works
- (h) Nutrition and Education
- (i) The Educator and Others—Parents, Employers, etc.

Would any member or small group of members like to undertake this very essential piece of work? If someone would, the Fellowship would benefit greatly.

As this goes to press the likelihood of the introduction of an Education Bill this autumn seems likely. The provisions of that Bill must look forward and not backwards if it is to meet the challenge of the age. This makes the Summer Conference and the research work of the Fellowship of increased and urgent importance. We know in the main what we want. As the Times Educational Supplement has put it, 'It must seek expression now in every possible way, in conversa-

Spring Offensive

tion, on the platform, in the Press, and over the air. *Every one* must help, *in however small a way*. Remember the issue at stake; whether our children shall have or shall not have the opportunity for full individual expression in a politically, economically, and socially conscious democratic community.' The responsibility of members of the Fellowship is great. Groups must be formed; individuals must work. The time is short—the issue great. If we fail now, we fail for many a year. This is

the hour in which the Fellowship must go into action, fired by a great purpose, and willing to spare no effort to win the victory.

It is regretted that the name of Mr. A. Corlett, of Great Yarmouth, was omitted from the list of the Executive Committee on a recently printed batch of Fellowship Pamphlets. The omission has now been rectified. Those who are old members of the Fellowship know how keen is Mr. Corlett's interest in its welfare.

The E.N.E.F. Spring Conference

THE English New Education Fellowship met at Ripon from April 13th to 17th to hear papers on education from Mrs. Beatrice King on Soviet Russia, Mr. J. A. Lauwerys on the U.S.A., Mr. Wang on China, and Mr. Castillejo on Spain. Each speaker had two sessions and a common plan: That principles and organization should be dealt with first, and content and method separately and later. Their hearers were entirely British and were directed in their listening (and, incidentally, in their discussions) by the Organizing Secretary's opening address.

Dr. Stead pointed out that if a democracy wishes to plan its educational system, the first stage is for groups of citizens all up and down the country to make themselves thoroughly aware of the current educational set-up in their localities. (See Bulletin 2, *New Era*, April-May, 1942.) He suggested (i) that these investigations should themselves be planned and that they should cover the whole educative field, which extends far beyond the schoolroom; and (ii) that serious investigators of education must become willy-nilly sociologists, because education is always designed to produce the emotional tone and the skills that will best fit a community's staple activities (prayer, trade, industry, conquest, colonization, the conservation of the *status quo*, etc., etc.).

The conference was admirably designed to drive home this last point. Each speaker described in detail the equal march between social purpose and educational practice in the country under discussion.

MRS. BEATRICE KING said that the early educational experiments of Soviet Russia were made against a background of acute famine and in a spirit of haste to get the regime established in the teeth of a hostile world. Early Soviet educationists had two objectives: *short term*, to arouse immediate support for the government; to produce skilled and semi-skilled workers who would help to satisfy the peasant's hunger for goods, without which he would not

give up his corn; and *long term*, to create communist citizens who would create a communist society.

'In the early years education was primarily a political tool. In 1928, when the First Five Year Plan was put into operation, doubts appeared about the value of methods borrowed from the West, such as Projects and the Dalton Plan. In 1933 (the First Five Year Plan fulfilled and the Second put into operation) a thorough reorganization of education took place. The fulfilment of this Second Plan demanded a much higher output per worker, which in its turn demanded a higher standard of all-round education in the schools.

'Soviet educationists argued that life outside the school acted as a natural stimulus to learning within it, so that artificial stimuli were unnecessary. Further the Project Method had produced people who had a smattering of many subjects but no solid groundwork. Such methods were dropped, and present methods resemble those in practice in any good ordinary school where a variety of material, apparatus, teaching aids, including a school cinema, is at the disposal of the teacher.

'Soviet education is centralized. The syllabus, which in its final form is the joint work of central education authorities and the teachers on the job, is, with rural and urban variations, the same for everybody. Often a syllabus is tested for a year or so before adoption. Further economic development was reflected in education in 1937. The Third Five Year Plan made still higher demands on the worker and on the technicians and scientists on whose work the factory and collective farm are based. So polytechnization was dropped and the time was given to science in the laboratory.'

Before the war situation arose, Soviet education was making great strides towards its ideal of nurturing all its pre-school children, providing secondary education for all from 8 to 18 years, and giving a wide choice of

subsequent specialist training according to individual bent, and irrespective of the parents' means.

Some Soviet innovations are readily understandable in the light of social necessity, which does not diminish either their practical or their theoretical interest. Two examples: (i) all factories were made responsible for providing and maintaining their own crèches and nursery-infant schools when new decrees regulating divorce and abortion were promulgated in 1936, with a consequent rise in the birth-rate; (ii) the Soviet principle of ten years' schooling for everybody was modified in 1940, and boys (not girls) of 15 were offered two years in industrial training schools, where three-quarters of their time would be spent in industrial training and a quarter in general education. A million boys jumped at this chance to stop formal schooling and serve the State.

MR. J. A. LAUWERYS' account of post-primary education in U.S.A. revealed no such tendency in American youth. There is a great growth of numbers undergoing higher education in the States, indeed roughly the same proportion go to university or college there (leaving at about 20 to 22) as go to Secondary schools in Britain. This post-school education is not necessarily academic; the General College, Minneapolis, for example, was established partly because it was felt undesirable to send down adolescents from the local university for failing to make the grade, and it offers a great variety of very unbookish subjects. This desire for continued education was explained as being due to a higher standard of living, with less pressure on the adolescent to start earning early. It is possible, however, that if adult education were easily available and *à la mode*, most adolescents would escape from school for five or ten years, knowing they had slammed no door on further learning.

Mr. Lauwerys showed how clearly geographical, historical, social and economic factors in the U.S.A. have determined educational practice. (The

States appear to stand half-way between Soviet Russia and ourselves in the degree to which these determinants have been consciously recognized and the resultant practice made explicit.) The welding of many immigrants of widely differing home backgrounds into a united nation was obviously a national problem of the first importance and one which could conveniently be tackled partly in the schools. Hence in the States there is wide public interest in education; the schools are explicitly committed to the maintenance of the principles of democracy, and each local community is aware that education is an attempt to solve a social problem. The schools are not primarily places where subjects are taught—they are more concerned with social studies and some give courses in human relationships.

There is another determinant, less consciously recognized, but no less powerful. Most immigrants have gone to the States either to get away from persecution or to *get on*. Parents therefore make a steady demand on the schools for an equal right to freedom of choice of curriculum for their children, and tend to resist and resent a school's attempt to grade pupils according to ability or to curb their choice of curriculum—even in cases where a child is too stupid or too intelligent to get maximum benefit from his own haphazard choosing. This attitude to schooling has both bad results and good: bad, in that serious gaps in knowledge may be felt later, *e.g.* when a student embarks on professional training; good, in that the States know no *class* division between its youth on the basis of what was learnt at school. (This is also true of the 10 per cent. of American children who go to private schools. They may or may not get better teaching there than at the State schools, but they certainly won't get better jobs at higher salaries because they have been privately educated.)

A non-expectation of privilege except the common 'chance to get on', a lack of schooling in taste and lack of taste for philosophical problems, a liking for mechanical inventions and for anything new, a willingness to experiment and to jettison what won't work however expensive it's been, a taught recognition of the importance of human relationships, and an attempt to simplify all problems so that every man can understand them—it's a picture of a great country in an age of change.

MR. WANG'S picture of ancient China seemed exquisite in comparison. Confucius went from Province to Province setting up schools (presumably not for the people) whose curricula contained four subjects—politics, morals, arts and language. And the arts were Manners, Music, Archery, Horsemanship, Penmanship and Mathematics. (The six virtues were:

wisdom, benevolence, goodness, righteousness, loyalty and harmony; and the six praiseworthy actions: honouring one's parents, being friendly with one's brothers, being neighbourly, maintaining cordial relationships with relatives by marriage, being trustful, being sympathetic.)

This ancient curriculum was replaced by the Examination System (*i.e.* examination in the Classics for the purpose of selecting government servants) which dominated Chinese social and educational organization from about 250 B.C. to the early nineteenth century A.D. It finally broke down under the stress of the disastrous wars made on China by the West, and was followed by a scramble to catch up with the technical proficiency of her attackers, which meant borrowing methods, curricula and text-books from Japanese, German and, latterly, American sources.

Mr. Wang then described the current efforts of Chinese educationists to wipe out illiteracy, save her literary treasures from the Japanese and settle down to the fulfilment of a national educational programme of the Chinese Republic:

'The education of the Republic of China is based on the *Three Principles of the People*. Its aims are to enrich the lives of the people, to foster the survival of society, to develop the means of livelihood and to prolong the life of the nation . . . that the nation may be independent, that the rights of democracy may become universal, that the people's livelihood may be improved; and so as to hasten the attainment of world peace and the brotherhood of mankind.'

DR. CASTILLEJO described the organization of education in the State and private schools of Spain before the civil war. He illustrated his points by an interesting and most entertaining account of his experiments upon the linguistic and arithmetical abilities of young children, made in his own schools in Spain.

The set-up and curricula of schools seemed to be pretty similar in the four countries described. Perhaps this should not have been surprising. It was interesting to note that the curriculum seems to have come in for much more scrutiny and reform in the U.S.A. than in any of the more revolutionary states.

THESE notes leave all the colour and most of the facts out of the speeches at Ripon. But they may indicate how well the speakers agreed with Dr. Stead's theme that education is a social activity which can be understood only in its social setting and planned organically only as part of a general social planning. He went on to point out that planning does not imply a dull uniformity, but rather the *control of development* by the discovery and control of educational key-points;

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with a wide latitude for experiment and improvization once these are secured against sectional interests.

He suggested that investigation may reveal three such key-points:

(i) the first five years during which the fundamental attitudes of thought and action are set;

(ii) what Professor Clarke has called the diagnostic years, from 11 to 14;

(iii) the older adolescent and young adult, who needs sound sociological, political and psychological training, including education for parenthood.

Dr. Stead ended by saying: 'If you look at education in a narrow field (as you must do) it is difficult to look honestly. One way to develop honesty of view is to look for the key-points and at the efforts of other peoples to solve similar problems.'

Ten Angels Swearing or To-morrows Politics, by Francis Williams. (Routledge, 1941. 5/-.)

The central theme of this book is that we want more politics and not less politics. A political democracy has to reduce to a minimum the number of its people who have no desire or who lack the capacity to help in shaping the pattern of social life. It can achieve this through education and a new form of presentation of difficult political issues.

'The democratic problem is that of establishing a body of political principle capable of being easily comprehended by the average citizen, and of enabling him to make some reasonably reliable test of the professions of politicians. It is the problem also of evolving a technique that, without falsifying by oversimplification, will build a bridge between the inevitably complicated problems of national and international politics and the necessarily restricted political understanding and interest of many of the democratic family.'

Too much has been made of the British people's capacity to reach right political judgments by instinct and without intellectual preparation. It is true that we do possess national unity and an ability for compromise which avoids the forcing of things to the kind of logical conclusion which makes civil war inevitable.

'But the capacity to judge political issues correctly and to see to it that the political will of the majority is sensible and intelligent, and is carried out sensibly and intelligently by the Executive, is an altogether different cup of tea.'

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Recent Books

Francis Williams asks many questions in this small book but has only space to give some of the answers. Here are two sample questions taken from the chapter on 'Problems for Democrats' which are concerned with the very core of to-morrow's politics :

'How far . . . can an increased concentration of power in the hands of the central government be made reconcilable with the individual liberties and freedoms which distinguish democracy from its rivals?'

'How serious is the risk that individual enterprise, initiative and inventiveness will be destroyed if security is made the criterion of the good society? How much security do we want? Do we want it all our lives or only when we are very young and very old?'

It seems to me right that these questions should be put at this time. 'Planners' and 'Reconstruction Groups' of all shades of political opinion (and of none) are busy with blue prints for the new society. They will ignore these not new central problems at their peril.

There follows a frank discussion on the working of English political party machinery by an astute observer of politics, a refreshing restatement of the essential arguments for a truly democratic system of education and some new and constructive proposals for adolescent and adult education. In the closing chapter of the book the author rejects both the State Socialism of the pre-war Russian model and the State Capitalism of the Fascist model. He is imbued with the democratic sense and the power of compromise of his own countrymen and believes that we in this country 'can advance towards a system that will provide the centralized economic control that historical processes now require without sacrificing of the essential freedoms of democracy'. He thinks that a return to our pre-war pattern would be undesirable and impossible.

Here is a book suitable alike for the student of politics and for the general reader. Francis Williams has a great deal of sound political sense, and his easy and intimate style makes the book a pleasure to read.

E. H. Littlecott

Air Training. By F. W. Weatherill. (The Library Association, 1942. 6d.)

This is a book list for the Air Training Corps and for school libraries. It contains some advanced works, but the greater number are technical books of a popular and elementary nature by recognized authorities, and cover all the subjects necessary for training. The object of the list is to help officers, school masters, librarians, and members or potential members of the A.T.C. and R.A.F. to find the books they require for their respective needs. All are carefully selected and recommended.

Diagnosis of Man. By Kenneth Walker. (Jonathan Cape, 1942. 10/6.)

In this book Mr. Kenneth Walker has attempted to provide us with a really comprehensive survey of the nature of man. As a surgeon he is acutely conscious of the fact that every type of specialist tends to examine man from only one particular angle, with the result that we are deprived of that *total* picture of our human situation which is essential for the control of our destiny.

Even if the author had failed in his undertaking—which is far from being the case—he would have rendered us a great service by conceiving of the problem in these terms. For it is obvious that it is just this breadth of treatment—from the standpoint not only of medical science, but of psychology, philosophy, and religion as well—of which we are to-day so desperately in need. Mr. Walker is one of those exceptional thinkers who is really possessed of an 'organic sensibility', with the result that he is at home in all the diverse aspects of anthropology, from endocrine glands to the most interior states of mystical consciousness. The emphasis is not equal; nor should it be. He is naturally more expert in dealing with scientific than with religious problems. But he is never the amateur. He has evidently read and thought deeply. And what he has to say is expressed with the force and clarity which we expect (but do not always get) from a highly-trained mind.

It is inevitable that through thus taking the wider view he should arrive at radical insights which are denied those who operate only with limited cross-sections of the human personality. Fundamental, for example, is his realization that modern psychotherapy offers the individual nothing more than *recovery*, i.e. renewed free functioning on the plane on which he existed before he entered the clinic. After successful treatment the patient returns to 'normal'. But Mr. Walker rightly insists that religion not only conceives of man as possessing the latent attributes of a divine being, but offers him a path along which he may progress towards self-transcendence. Mere readjustment to what materialistic and unenlightened thinkers uncritically describe as 'Reality' will not suffice us.

When he enters the realm of religion the author leaves us, nevertheless, a little uncertain. The remarkable breadth of his sympathies is, of course, extremely refreshing. But it makes also for a certain facile universalism which tends to flinch from the obstinate truth that numbers of religious assumptions and beliefs are simply erroneous, decadent, or arbitrary in character. The all-rays-from-one-

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central-sun attitude causes just as much trouble in this field as does uncompromising dogmatism.

Further, like many writers of a more intellectual type, Mr. Walker is inclined to picture us as being related to reality almost exclusively in two modes: outwardly to the physical universe, and inwardly to God. But there is also to be taken into account the Ambient, that vast sphere of invisible life which is continually radiating its psychic and spiritual influences upon us, and to which we need to adjust ourselves if we wish to become masters of ourselves and our experience. Regarding this tremendous realm he has, somewhat surprisingly, nothing to say in the present study. And this means that it is not fully modern—for it is just in the course of the last half-century that we have awakened to the limitless possibilities which are offered to us in this field, and to the necessity of coming to terms with it.

This shortcoming apart, Mr. Walker's book will be of the greatest value to everyone who wishes to see the human problem in its proper spiritual proportions. *Lawrence Hyde*

Modern Britain 1870-1939. D. C. Somervell. (Methuen. 6/-.)

For some time I have been hoping someone will do for the schoolboy what Mr. Arthur Bryant, in *English Saga*, has done for the general reader. When

I took up Mr. Somervell's *Modern Britain* I wondered whether he had done this. I fear that he has not. Mr. Bryant's book has a vivid quality, a sort of picturesque warmth, which Mr. Somervell's lacks. It may be that the theory that the only interesting history is biased history is a true one. Mr. Somervell's book is strictly objective; he keeps to facts and eschews theory. Except for a faintly detectable flavour of liberalism (of the Gladstonian vintage) his own views are not evident.

Comparison is, however, unfair. This is a class book for boys and girls of the middle school. What they need is facts; before they start speculating on why things happened, or whether they ought to have happened, they must know what did actually happen. That Mr. Somervell tells them clearly and precisely. The book is a mine of information, not only about war and politics, but about social life, thought and religion, and about science and mechanical invention. It is a basic book, the sort of book to start on, sound, scholarly and compact. More picturesque and controversial works can be read later.

I recommend *Modern Britain* to history teachers. I know no better, fuller or more concise description of this all-important period of our history suitable for schools. I hope, however, that someone, some day, will write another sort of book, one which is as

scholarly and objective as Mr. Somervell's, but which has more of the quality of sympathy. *F. C. Happold*

Radio's Listening Groups. By F. E. Hill and W. E. Williams. (Columbia University Press, 1941. 18/6.)

At the close of his Introduction to this account of wireless discussion groups Mr. Levering Tyson writes: 'Read Mr. Williams' Epilogue on page 256, and THINK', and other obedient British readers besides myself will be drawn on to read Part II first. Its field of enquiry is more restricted than that of Part I (America) by Mr. Hill, who, in reply to the question, 'What in Hades is a listening group?' can range from those assembled 'when King Edward VIII of Great Britain renounced his crown for love' to those who, like their British counterparts, have both discussion and study as their objective.

The approach of the two investigators to their subject is indicative of the difference of development which broadcast adult education shows between the U.S.A. and Britain. Mr. Hill does his job with thoroughness. He is dramatic, anxious not to be taken in, and assures us of his 'attitude of healthy scepticism' in tabulating statistics; those interested in the diversity of American education with its amenability to experiment will find a wealth

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of informative material. Mr. Williams, on the other hand, assembles an objective study of most of the problems centred in radio as an instrument for furthering adult education. Not all will agree with his interpretation of the facts before him, but he poses problems the solving of which requires clear thinking, and he raises the basic question: Is discussion the chief activity to be drawn from the listening group or is its value over-rated?

Unfortunately, in Mr. Tyson's Introduction, the remarks on group listening in rural areas are sensational and misleading. 'Britain's experience in this direction', he writes, 'has been an eye-opener and it may save us an unconscionable amount of hard labour and headache'. The British enquiry neither instances nor implies adequate evidence to justify so sweeping an assertion. The author might have quoted more fully the data offered by the work of the Lancashire Education Authority in its rural areas. This, though small in its relation to the country as a whole, illustrates what can be done by a Local Education Authority prepared to integrate group listening with other forms of adult education. (In passing, the Lancashire Authority was rather more generous in its payment for an evening's group leadership than the 5/- to 12/6 range quoted as being 'just enough to turn the scales and to attract teachers to the work', and paid up to £1 1s. according to its assessment of the leader's qualifications.) The evidence of the lack of development in rural areas is nothing so startling as an eye-opener, for there has been little consideration of the rural group in the provision of talks.

Mr. Williams includes an account of group listening in other European

countries and a comprehensive chapter on school broadcasting. He himself makes the point that broadcast education has by no means reached a static level of development, and in fact the work has already been carried on beyond the stage at which he ended—shortly after the outbreak of the war.

Discussion group broadcasts are again on the programmes and included in the Forces. The *Under Twenty Club*, which he described as a 'war casualty', has come to life again, and the dramatic technique which 'adult groups have not yet dared to tackle makes its appearance weekly in *That's What I Say*. Group listening has thus been given fresh impetus, in spite of the war. The material in *Radio's Listening Groups* records and interprets a particular stage in the history of broadcast education from which we can seek guidance for future development.

J. H. Higginson

Playing with Music. By Charles Hooper. (E. J. Arnold & Son. *Teacher's Handbook* price 2/6; *Parts I & II* price 1/- each.)

After a careful reading of the above books I find myself somewhat in disagreement with Dr. Hooper with regard to *methods* of teaching music to young children, though I think that he and I are at one in our desire that it shall be presented as richly as possible to children in the infant school. Dr. Hooper's books are designed to help non-specialist teachers of music in the classroom and have been written with that purpose in view and to meet an expressed need of such classroom aids to the teaching of this subject. I would therefore recommend any teacher who feels the need of fresh ideas to obtain these books and study them carefully, at the same time bringing a very critical mind to bear upon them. In the author's own words, 'this series sets out in the hope that it will *help children to acquire factual knowledge* of music, using the most attractive approach possible', and to this end the basic facts of rhythm and pitch are associated with coloured pictures and 'characters', e.g. Fairy Doh, the Fairy Queen Treble Clef, Boy Scout Crotchet, etc., and stories built up around these 'personalities'. This tends to a confusion of ideas and I cannot escape the feeling that appropriate music, rightly presented by a teacher who has sympathy with small children, coupled with love of music and sound musicianship, needs no extraneous aids of this nature. Music is in itself so attractive to small children that it can stand on its own feet and the thing we should stress, and stress repeatedly, is surely rather the appeal to the *ear* than to the *eye*. Nursery rhymes, traditional singing games, and percussion bands offer

plenty of scope for activity—as do rhythmic movements to music on the lines of those presented in the broadcast lessons of Anne Driver and others. And frankly, when Dr. Hooper says in his Introduction on page 3 that 'little has been done outside lectures, courses and odd articles, to render these keen educationists any real assistance with the lessons themselves', I find myself considerably puzzled by this statement. Books by Ernest Read, Stewart Macpherson, Lilian Buck, Mabel Chamberlain, Winifred Houghton, and others, published during the last fifteen years or so, are full of helpful advice, practical teaching devices and musical material for this purpose. To my mind the musically equipped teacher has little need for these new books, and in the hands of a musically ill-equipped teacher I should consider them dangerous.

M. A. C.

A Little Book of Modern Verse. Selected by Anne Ridler. (Faber & Faber, 1942. 3/6.)

A New Anthology of Modern Verse, 1920-1940. C. Day Lewis and L. A. G. Strong. (Methuen & Co., 1942. 3/6.)

Anthologies challenge comparison with anthologies: that is, being presented with a bunch labelled 1940, one wonders how much it has improved upon a bunch labelled 1920; or *vice versa*. If memory serves me, these two excellent little books have improved remarkably upon say, *Poems of To-day*. I never cared for the poem, 'O fat white woman whom nobody loves'; it seemed harmless enough but cheap; but the general opinion was that the author was too

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clever for words. There was quite a lot of this spirit about in *Poems of To-day*. There is absolutely none of it in Miss Ridler's selection, and only the smallest trace in Mr. Day Lewis's and Mr. Strong's.

The *New Anthology* is a larger, therefore looser selection than the *Little Book*, and thus presents more variety and is easier to read. The poems chosen by Miss Ridler are more of a kind, tighter. Taking a few of these at a time, or better still, taking both books together, one feels forcibly what a volume of excellent poetry there is about—poetry of deep sincerity, poetry with body, poetry which has assimilated the democratic and enriched language which to-day we all use, and which exudes that harrowing, nostalgic brotherliness which seems more and more evident as the world grows more horrible on the big issues.

These anthologies are intended for

use in schools, and this gives the unsupple, middle-aged reviewer a moment's pause. The work in these books is almost completely admirable. Boys and girls of 17 and 18 are adult readers. And yet some of these poems would be more fully enjoyed by them when they are older.

Such is W. H. Auden's exquisite

'Lay your sleeping head my love
Human on my faithless arm.'

One wonders, too, about D. H. Lawrence's tortoise poem, in his own vein. But perhaps after all 17 is the moment for this serious, deathly, appreciative 17, never likely to be disturbed by the ghost of a giggle at the idea that if the copulating tortoise, like the aloe, is only heard once in 100 years emitting its fragile male yell, it would have been just D. H. Lawrence's luck to hear it.

Ada Harrison

Religious Knowledge

In Circular 1566 the Board of Education have urged the provision of courses to assist teachers who wish to qualify themselves to give religious instruction. In response to this request, a small committee under the chairmanship of the Bishop of Durham was formed to arrange a course for teachers, especially those in the North.

A fortnight's residential course is being held at St. Chad's College, Durham, from July 30th to August 13th. The Director of this course will be Professor M. V. C. Jeffreys, Professor of Education in the University of Durham. The main subjects of the course are Bible Study, and Psychology and Religious Education. The Board of Education has accepted the course for the purposes of Circular 1566. Further particulars from the Rev. A. Moody, 44 Claypath, Durham.

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Education in a Racial-Caste Society—II

R. F. Alfred Hoernlé

Professor of Philosophy, University of Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg, Union of South Africa

THE inequality of educational facilities in South Africa described in the June issue of *The New Era* may be summarized as follows:

1. Access to Primary Education.

For European children, this is free and compulsory. For Coloured children, it is free but not compulsory. For Indian children, it is not compulsory, nor free in all Provinces. For African children, it used to be neither free nor compulsory. Last year, the small fees which were all that poor African parents could pay, were officially abolished. But, actually, the official funds made available in lieu of fees for Native education are so inadequate that Native schools have no choice but to go on collecting voluntary fees, in order to have a little ready cash for essential equipment. And, lest the abolition of compulsory fees bring an influx of pupils far exceeding the available accommodation, or the limited financial resources of the Native Trust Fund, the enrolment was fixed at the average figure of the preceding year, thus preventing, for the time being, further expansion. It is certain that far more African children would go to school, if more schools existed for them.

The net result is that every European child goes to school at least until Standard VI or age 16. Most Coloured children get some schooling, but are not compelled to stay as long in school as European

children. Indian prejudices (or principles?) account for the fact that hardly any girls go to school at all, but of Indian boys a much larger proportion does so. Of African children of school-going age, only about 30 per cent. get any schooling at all, and most of these attend for only three or four years at most. Thus, at the Primary School level, the bulk of the Non-European population, as compared with the European population, either remains uneducated, or receives only a fragmentary education.

The whole situation is vividly pictured in two quotations from the *Report of the Interdepartmental Committee on Native Education, 1935-36*:

'The Government contribution per pupil for European education is ten times as large as that for Native education, and over forty times as much per head of the European population as per head of the Native population.'

'The education of the White child prepares him for life in a dominant society, and the education of the Black child for a subordinate society.'

It should be added that specialized Primary Schools, like the recently instituted Farm-Schools in the Transvaal, are open only to White children, and that the scattered White farming population is helped by boarding bursaries to send its children to the hostels of schools in the 'dorps', whilst for lesser distances there is sometimes an organized bus-transport available.

2. Access to Secondary Education

For no children of any race is this compulsory, but for White children it is free in the Transvaal. In the other Provinces, the fees payable are within the means of many, though by no means all, of the White parents. There are, as might be expected, enough Secondary Schools for White needs, but only a small number for Indian, Coloured and African children. If more schools were available for these children, more of them would, in spite of their parents' poverty, seek higher educational qualifications, even though most Non-European children with a High School education find no avenues of employment open to them except teaching, a few low-grade Civil Service posts, and a few subordinate administrative positions in the service of the Chamber of Mines or other employers of large numbers of Native labourers. If relatively few Non-European children reach even Standard VI of the Primary School, far fewer still complete the Secondary School Course, or qualify, by passing the Matriculation examination, for admission to a University.

3. Access to Universities

No Afrikaans-speaking University or University College admits any Non-European students at all. Among the English-speaking Universities or University Colleges policy differs. Some manage to avoid having Non-European students. One (in Natal) admits Indians to special classes, but does

not mix Indian and White students, and does not admit Native students. The Universities of Cape Town and of the Witwatersrand have no colour-bar. The former has about 50 Non-European students (out of a total enrolment of nearly 3,000), who come almost without exception from the Cape Coloured community. The latter has less than 40 Non-Europeans in an enrolment of about 2,800. Most of these are Indians, including three women students. The Indians go in either for Medicine or Law. A few Natives take an Arts Degree as part-time students attending late afternoon classes. Last year, the Government initiated a scheme by which every year five African students are to enter on the Medical Course of the University of the Witwatersrand, with the help of Government scholarships—a development made possible by the growth of Non-European hospitals in Johannesburg and along the Reef, so that these students can, in their clinical years, be trained on Native patients, and need not receive, *e.g.* gynaecological or obstetric training on White women patients. All these Non-European students attend the same classes as White students, and work alongside them in laboratories—an arrangement which meets with fierce criticism in Afrikaner circles as undermining the principle of 'no social equality between Whites and Blacks'. Afrikaners traditionally recognize only one type of relationship between Whites and Blacks, viz., that of master and servant. With that relationship the provision of equal educational facilities for the servant-race is obviously not compatible. The relationship is destroyed no less by admitting the children of the servant-caste to the same educational institutions as the children of the master-caste, than by allowing the children of the servant-caste to acquire a kind of education (*e.g.* professional training) which unfits them automatically for their place in the servant-caste.

As a compromise there was founded, in 1919, at Fort Hare, near Alice in the Eastern Cape Province, the South African Native College, which prepares students for the degrees in Arts and Science of the University of South Africa. The College admits Indian and Coloured students, too, but most of its alumni are Africans. By

now it has produced over 100 Non-European graduates, mostly men; and their chief professional outlets have been teaching and the ministry of the Church.

The University of South Africa is not only the co-ordinating examining body for a number of constituent Colleges, but also runs a system of examinations, like the old University of London, for 'external students', who do not attend any academic teaching institution, but prepare themselves for the examinations by private study, *i.e.* in practice, by being crammed by one or other of the numerous commercial organizations supplying instruction by correspondence. A good many Africans spend their hard-earned and exiguous cash on such correspondence courses, but very few succeed in gaining the coveted degrees.

To sum up: No South African child of any race can get free University Education. The scale of fees varies in different University institutions open to Whites, and all of them offer scholarships, generally awarded on the results of the Matriculation, or other University Entrance, examination. No doubt wealthy White parents occasionally treat a University merely as a finishing school for a daughter, and, at the other end of the economic scale, there are White boys and girls who would benefit from a University education, but are deprived of it by their parents' poverty. But, in general, it may be said that, with the help of scholarships and/or by choice of a low-fee institution, most White children who are fitted for a University education find it in fact within their reach. The same cannot be said, however, for Non-European children. Even out of the relatively few who achieve the Matriculation examination, only a very few can afford another three or four years of academic study. If they go to one of the White Universities admitting Non-Europeans, they have to pay the same fees as White students. At Fort Hare fees are by comparison very low, both for instruction and for board, but, even so, when clothes, books, travelling, etc., etc., are added, the total outlay per annum is beyond the reach of most African parents. And, apart from the economic obstacles, there is the further obstacle that, by a conven-

tional colour-bar, most of the professions to which a University course gives access, are barred to Non-Europeans. Medicine is, at present, the only exception. The few African lawyers, practising as attorneys (solicitors), not as barristers, find it difficult to make an honest living.

Thus, all in all, there are no 'equal educational facilities' at the University level for all races in the Union of South Africa.

4. *Access to Technical and Agricultural Colleges*

There is a well-organized system of such Colleges, distributed over the country, for White children, reasonably accessible to all White children desiring this kind of education. For Non-European children no 'equal' provision exists. There are several institutions training Native Agricultural Demonstrators, but the number of positions available has for some years past been smaller than the number of qualified candidates. There is no technical education for Native boys at all, owing to the colour-bar which excludes them from skilled occupations. Native girls are, however, now being trained as fully-qualified Nurses by all large Non-European hospitals, and the supply does not, at present, equal the demand. They cannot, however, rise to the highest administrative posts, such as matronships, in the Nursing Service. Technical training is, in principle, available for Coloured youths, but few of them take it, because once more colour bars tend to exclude them from many of the skilled occupations for which the training could fit them. An Indian student who wanted to take a degree in Engineering at the University of the Witwatersrand found his path blocked by the fact that no Engineering firm would accept him for the required practical workshop training, lest it have trouble with its White artisans.

In this field, as little as in any other, do equal educational facilities for Europeans and Non-Europeans exist. It would not accord with the South African caste-society if they did.

Finally, a few words about the two supplementary problems which contributors have been asked to deal with.

Private Schools.—Using this term for all schools other than Government, or State, schools, there are

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four sorts of 'private' schools in South Africa.

1. There are the 'private' schools which have been modelled, for boys, more or less on the English 'Public Schools', and, for girls, on Roedean and similar English Girls' Schools. (There is a South African 'Roedean' in Johannesburg. There are upwards of a dozen of these schools in various parts of South Africa. The Chapels and the religious tone of most of them are Anglican, but they do not limit themselves to children of Anglican parents. The Principals of the boys' schools are, with rare exceptions, Anglican clergymen, mostly imported from overseas. The Headmistresses of the Girls' schools, too, are imported more often than not. All these schools charge fees, and, though the cost of educating a child at one of them is appreciably lower than at their leading English prototypes, it is none the less true that their clientèle is drawn from the well-to-do English-speaking section. Afrikaners and Jews (with negligible exceptions) use the State schools, as does the majority of the English-speaking section.

Until the outbreak of the War a handful of very wealthy English South Africans used to send its

children, and especially its boys, to Public Schools in England, and thence, if possible, to Oxford or Cambridge, thus avoiding both South African schools and South African Universities—an un-South African practice which lent colour to the taunt levelled by the extremer Nationalist section of Afrikaners against their English-speaking fellow-citizens, viz., that they remain 'uitlanders' at heart. Those English South Africans who cannot afford this luxury, and desire for their children the community life of a boarding school, English in outlook and tone, still largely patronize the Anglican private schools in preference to the socially more mixed State schools, though the latter probably give, on the average, the better instruction.

There is, nowadays, no visible tendency to the multiplication of these schools catering for the children of the well-to-do among the English-speaking section. At most, there is expansion of existing schools, in response to population growth.

2. Next, there are the private schools established by the Christian Brothers, the Marist Brothers, and other Roman Catholic Teaching Orders. They, too, charge fees.

Their pupils are not confined to Roman Catholics. They have, in general, a good reputation and are used freely by Protestant, and even by Jewish, parents who, for one reason or another, do not like the State schools and cannot afford, or are not admitted to, the private schools of Anglican colour.

3. There are the private schools—perhaps 'classes' would be a better word—already mentioned which cater for the needs of religious and cultural minority groups, like the Indian or Hebrew schools. They are, obviously, not the creation of economically privileged groups seeking differential advantages for their children.

4. Lastly, the largest group of 'private' schools consists of the Mission Schools for Native children. The Union has no system of State schools for Native children. There are, indeed, a few Government Schools for Natives (about 130 in Natal, none in the Orange Free State, one in the Transvaal, and three in the Cape Province). All the rest—upwards of 4000—are Mission, or Church, schools. Of these upwards of 3,200 are 'recognized' by the Government, i.e. teachers' salaries and certain other

items of expenditure are paid by the State. The remainder—over 800, some of which are run by Tribes, others by one or other of the over 500 independent Native churches—struggle along as best they can. In the great majority of cases, these unrecognized schools do poor work, with an underpaid and unqualified staff, on an inadequate income.

In short, the overwhelming majority of 'private' schools in the Union caters for the poorest of the poor—the unprivileged African bottom-caste in the Union's racial-caste society.

Poor Home Background Supplemented by State Schools.—To the best of my knowledge there is plenty of poor home background, but very little attempt in State schools to remedy its deficiencies. Many of the Primary Schools even for White children have no school libraries, or only small and inadequate ones. Being mostly day-schools, from which the children scatter after school-hours, few of them provide a 'quiet place' or 'help for homework'; and 'out-of-school activities that have some sort of gay cultural content' are equally rare, unless the semi-political efforts of some Afrikaner-schools to inflame their pupils with Afrikaner Nationalism and Republicanism (more or less anti-British, anti-Jewish, anti-Non-European) deserve to be mentioned here. Non-European schools are, in general, even worse off in all these respects. As few Native homes are literate or can afford to buy books, the lack of school libraries is especially disastrous, the more so as throughout most of the Union the so-called 'Public' Libraries are, by a social colour-bar, accessible only to Whites. There is a Carnegie Non-European Library, which circulates books to various Native Institutions, but which does not, and cannot, attempt to cater for all the Non-European schools. The Johannesburg Public Library has, recently, begun to organize branches for the Non-European population of the city: most conspicuous among these is the Winifred Holtby Memorial Library in the Western Native Township (*i.e.* in one of the three big Johannesburg 'Locations', in which Native families are residentially segregated). The building was erected with funds gathered by friends of Miss Holtby, supple-

mented by a Government grant. The Johannesburg Public Library provides the books and the staff.

The picture I have drawn under this final heading is depressing, not only for the State schools for White children, but even more for the private schools for Non-European children. We have a long way to go before we can claim that our schools are successful in making good the cultural deficiencies of the home-background of most White, and nearly all Non-European, families.

It is, however, only fair that I should also record the claim which Dr. Alexander Kerr, Principal of the South African Native College, Fort Hare, made at the recent Lovedale Centenary, on behalf of Lovedale and other similar Mission institutions:

'Here and in Institutions and seminaries of like purpose you see a more unified and comprehensive attempt to educate than modern use and wont has accustomed us to, I had almost said "degenerated to". Not for the first time has the Christian mission to underprivileged people shown the way to those working among so-called higher social groups. Before hand and eye training was general in schools for Europeans, there were established here departments of industrial training, and the common arts of social intercourse were employed not for mere utility only but also for the training of character. Here again the arts of hearth and home were taught long before it was fashionable to teach domestic science in European schools. Not only learning from books was encouraged here but also the making and distribution of books; not only the teaching of pupils, but the training of teachers. The close connection between sound education and medical care was known here and utilized long before medical inspection was organized in the ordinary schools in this country. Where else in any single institution outside of those of missionary origin will you find such a prominent place given to religious education, in its double aspect of teaching and preaching? Here you have a unique combination of religious, industrial, medical, professional, secondary, and primary education—all of which taken together make up the sum of real community education, all of them facets of the diamond of experience. Non-European students educated in such an institution are privileged to be members of a society-in-little which corresponds to the complex of life more closely than do the segregated colleges of the

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European boy or girl, and which is correspondingly richer in experience.'

Whatever truth there may be in this claim for Lovedale and similar institutions, it cannot be maintained for the great mass of Non-European, and especially Native, schools in the country. The very teachers in these schools bring to their task a less complete cultural equipment than do their colleagues in White schools. And whatever deficiencies the White schools may possess, the average Non-European school possesses them likewise, only much more so.

No doubt there has been progress in the past, and there is progress in the present, in the provision of education for Non-Europeans. But the best which is available to them still remains, except for a small number of Institutions, a very long way behind both in quantity and quality, the education which the dominant White caste provides for its own children. By and large, the under-castes in the South African racial-caste-society are under-educated, too. It is part of the technique of this type of caste-society that they should remain so.

Schools in Pre-War Poland

B. S. Drzewieski

Former Vice-Chairman of Polish Teachers Union,
Headmaster of a Secondary School in Warsaw

THE Great War and the revolutions that followed it caused serious crises on the Continent, both social and ideological. These produced a continuous forming and breaking up of political parties, and in some countries a growing totalitarianism; this shifting political scene was reflected in constant changes in the organization of the educational system, in the conception of education, in school methods and programmes. We felt this educational crisis strongly in Poland, the more so since the country had been destroyed and plundered, there were no Polish schools in either Russian or German Poland, and the great masses of the population were poor. Financial help from abroad was badly needed, but the rich countries preferred to finance our present enemies.

The following is a general account of how we, the democratic teachers of Poland, tried to solve the educational problem, with some indication of the reasons for our partial success and partial failure.

The first Government of restored Poland was headed by a Socialist prime minister, I. Daszynski, and its policy, like that of all the early democratic governments of Poland, was to build up as one of the features of a modern state, free compulsory elementary education. The achievements in the first years were so far-reaching that at certain periods from 80 to 90 per cent. of the nation's children were in school.

We had no appropriate school buildings, not enough teachers, no teaching programme and no text books. We had only millions of children of school age, our traditional respect for learning and education, and, most important of all, a great love for children and for the Polish school. The fact that we had to build up our educational system from its beginnings had one great advantage: we were not burdened with school slums and obsolete curricula as are many other countries. We had a clean start, as far as buildings, text-books and teaching programmes were concerned. But we were dogged by a historical cleavage when we came to the formulation

of educational aims.¹ Two opposing viewpoints confronted each other. One represented the followers of educational dualism, the other represented the followers of a democratic school system, urging the abolition of class privileges and the assurance to all children equality of access to education.

The result of the struggle between the Democratic teachers of Poland and the reactionary government was an Education Act which came into force on 1st July, 1932. This Act appears on the surface to promise the *Ecole Unique*,² but in many ways it preserves in disguise the reactionary tendencies of the ruling classes. The preamble to the Act indicates its guiding idea:

'The present law lays down the principle of an educational system which will enable the State so to organize the education of all its people that it may make them active and responsible citizens, give them the best possible religious, moral, intellectual and physical training as well as a proper preparation for life, and open to the more highly endowed members of all social classes the road to advanced scientific and technical training.'

According to the Act, the educational system was reorganized as follows:

1. *Seven years' elementary instruction* was made compulsory for all children.

This meant the abolition of the first and second forms of the Secondary School, a very important step if your aim is that all children, irrespective of their home background, should find themselves in the state elementary schools. This aim was not altogether achieved in Poland, for the privileged classes were stronger than the laws of the

country. The private elementary schools ('Prep' schools) survived for the children of the rich, who were therefore better prepared than their contemporaries at the state elementary schools for entrance into the secondary schools. Seeing this, we demanded the abolition of private elementary schools.

2. The Act also provided for *the ages at which pupils were to be selected* for the type of education most suited to them. The Polish practice was, in this respect, I think, much sounder than that of many other countries, where progressive educationists are agreed that the 'special place' examination, on the results of which a child's future so largely depends, occurs at far too young an age. In Poland the first selection took place at ± 13 , i.e. after six years of elementary education. According to his type of abilities, a child either passed on to a secondary school, or to a technical secondary school, or he entered the seventh form of the elementary school, where he continued until the end of the period of compulsory instruction.³ The second selection took place after four years of secondary schooling, i.e. between 16 and 17, an age by which youth has begun to crystallize his interests and abilities.

But the whole question of selection shows up the extreme difficulty of eliminating the class system, as far as education is concerned. One must distinguish carefully between two types of selection, the *differentiating* and the *rejecting*. The latter consists in sifting out the best and most gifted children through a net of competitive examinations. What is required by social justice is a differentiation between human gifts and the ensuring of a proper line of education to every child according to his individuality.

3. *Secondary Education* was provided in two stages: a gymnasium (four years) and then a lyceum (two years). Between the two came the second (vocational) selection, as explained above. There were also many supplementary

¹ Poland, before the Partitions, was a country of the nobility, who maintained their wealth on the exploitation of the serfs. The best and most liberal element of the nobility, however, had realized at an early date the necessity for abolishing serfdom. They urged the enlightenment of the peasant masses, in order to make them fit for a life as free citizens. At the end of the Eighteenth Century, these far-sighted aristocrats proclaimed that education should be the basis for a national renaissance. The first Board of Education in Europe was formed then, the Polish Committee for National Education. The enlightened ideas of these men were made nugatory by the general fear of the privileged classes that the education of the people would endanger their privileges. They therefore opposed popular education.

² For an account of the steps taken in France to achieve *L'Ecole Unique*, see *New Era*, April, 1940.

³ This made the seventh year of elementary education into a strange and unnecessary superstructure, in the eyes of both parents and children. It was against the wishes of democratic teachers, who would like to have seen the first selection made at the end of seven years' elementary education. We did succeed in obtaining some minor concessions by basing some types of professional schooling on a seven-year elementary course.

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4. *Technical schools* were of two kinds, offering two or four year courses. The reform of technical education was never fully accomplished, for it is the most expensive form of education of any, and what money there was was necessarily spent first on elementary education.

THE 1932 Education Act did not, as we have seen, provide fully for the democratization of education. Therefore we were not satisfied with the Bill and continued our fight. We had to direct our main energies towards the defence of the elementary schools, a task that was made ever more difficult by the rising birth-rate and the steady cuts in education grants.¹

As a result of this critical situation, in 1937-38 we had 9.3 per cent. (457,490) children without schools. A further 350,000 children were removed from school because their progress was not satisfactory. We had some 'Special' Schools, but not nearly enough of them. So that in all we had over 800,000 children completely deprived of education.

Of the remaining 4 million children, only 2 million were in seven-form schools. The remainder, especially peasant children, received their education in schools organized on a lower level.² This made it almost impossible for children of the people, especially those from rural districts, to enter secondary schools. In 1937-38 only 13,399 children applied for an examination to secondary schools; 9,299 passed, and only 8,360 were accepted. From the schools in towns about 1 child in 28 was admitted to the secondary school. From rural schools, about 1 in 86 children was admitted from seven-form schools, 1 in 600 from the four-form schools, and 1 in 15,000 from one- and two-form schools.

¹ Here are some statistics, which under the present difficult circumstances cannot be complete or even accurate:

Assuming the indicator of 1928-9 to be 100, the indicator of the population of 1930-31 was 102.5, and in the year 1935-36, 109.3. In recent years we were short of 100,000 school-rooms and 40,000 teachers. In the meantime the expenses of education, which in 1927-28 had amounted to 300 million zł., was cut to 266 million zł. in 1937-38. In the same period the allocation for school buildings fell from 13 million to 3 million, and the money spent on teacher training fell from 14 million to 4 million.

² Only 6.5 per cent. peasant children were educated in seven-form schools, 73 per cent. of them being in one- or two-form schools. The average number of pupils per teacher in 1937-38 was 63, and we had tiny schools in the countryside where one teacher had to educate and teach from 80 to a hundred children.

Only 0.53 per cent. of peasant children reached secondary education. As a result, in our universities and colleges we had 53.6 per cent. of the upper middle class and the gentry, and only 1 per cent. of workers' and peasants' children.

THIS picture of pre-war elementary education in Poland is not a particularly cheerful one, owing to a prolonged economic crisis and the reactionary tendencies of the ruling classes. We are all aware that the basic cause of the educational crisis which was general on the Continent before the war was the difficulty of formulating educational aims whilst social aims remained so ill-defined. Our Education Act of 1932 tried to define an educational aim *whilst at the same time covering up the social and political tendencies of the men who drew it up.*

In our attempts, abroad, to define education in the democratic Poland of the future, we assume that it is useless to examine the problem of education apart from the social crisis through which humanity is passing. For education is only an expressive exponent of a social system.³ Polish teachers and Polish democracy put up an uncompromising fight against the poverty of our elementary education. I should like to emphasize the stubborn struggle of our young elementary school teachers. They paid hard with their own health and strength and did everything they could to achieve a higher standard of education. Our Union organized in the mountains a sanatorium for consumptives which was continuously overcrowded by young girl teachers who had remained at their posts till the condition of their lungs and haemorrhages made their presence in the schools dangerous for the children.

Teachers made a real effort to compile a school syllabus based on reality, on the interests and the psychological development of the children and on the requirements of the environment. Therefore we find in the syllabus the link between scientific material and the current life of the nation and humanity, and the text-books took account of the child's natural environment, whether urban or rural, whether his father was a peasant or industrial worker, and so on. The best

³ For a brief formulation of our educational aims, see *New Era*, June 1942, p. 103.

of the Polish schools tried to make a useful and active citizen of the child, both politically and socially. They tried to help the child to understand contemporary life and therefore history and literature were taught right up to modern times, and an economic and sociological interpretation of history was given. In general, teachers tried to touch the children's imagination and activeness, breaking with the old methods of passive learning.

In the same way, the problem of self-government was tackled from a different angle in the Polish school from what it is in many other countries. The teacher did not merely use the children to help him in his supervisory duties. In Poland, different forms of self-government, newspapers edited by the children, social youth organizations, were means of giving youth active practice in the kind of duties he would have to undertake in the community.

It can truly be said that in spite of difficulties we in Poland achieved in many ways a high level of progressive education. The best proof of this is that the Nazis had to close down all universities, secondary schools and nearly all elementary schools as well as to liquidate all youth organizations, that great numbers of our older boys ran away to join the Services in France and later in Great Britain, and that others play an active part in the underground fight against the invader at home.

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Educational Incentives and Social Change

David Jordan

Welwyn Garden City County School

THE attention of administrators, teachers and parents is being increasingly directed towards the need for overhauling our educational machinery in readiness for meeting the problems of the post-war world. The colourful list of White Papers, Green Books, Orange Books and other similar publications increases daily. It is therefore necessary to remind ourselves that a change in the machinery of educational administration cannot, of itself, bring about any vital reconstruction of the child's immediate educational environment. 'Equality of educational opportunity' for all children, and 'equality of status' for all teachers may be introduced; administrative areas may be rationalized; and the powers of local authorities revised; school buildings may be improved and *per capita* allowances enlarged, without any fundamental change taking place in the human contacts in classroom and school, which are the real basis of education.

Bigger and better houses do not necessarily foster more vital family life; they merely provide the basic material environment within which a richer and more vital family life may be fostered. Its richness and variety will still be determined by the innate quality of the individuals within the family group, their opportunities for self-expression and development, and by the measure in which the group provides a satisfactory means for resolving 'those psychic forces and tensions which are frequently set up in any close association such as the family group provides'.¹ Similarly, bigger and better schools and more ample educational means, are to be regarded as essential preliminaries rather than as final achievements. When we have overcome our material difficulties, and eliminated the most blatant educational effects of existing class distinctions, we shall still be left with the human problems which naturally arise in any active and developing social group.

Moreover, the accelerating rate of social change, which is one of the inevitable concomitants of the second world-war, is bound to bring about a re-examination of the purpose of existing social groups, and of the fundamental principles upon which they are organized. Far from being able to escape this examination, the school is likely to find itself in the forefront of the social battle, with increased influence and correspondingly increased responsibilities, and subject to the impact of more informed and sustained criticism.

The democratic society of the future, with its more equalitarian emphasis, its dethronement of hereditary power and prestige, its refusal to make a virtue of subservience, its recognition of inalienable individual rights in a setting of social service, and with its clearer conception of its own dynamic function, will never tolerate educational institutions whose internal arrangements are based upon the invalid assumptions of a more static and less vital society. Pre-war capitalist society conceived of education as a means by which individuals were equipped to compete with one another in the economic sphere. It still believed very largely in the validity of individualist incentives, and was still dominated by lingering relics of the *laissez-faire* idea that the attempt to make private profit must of necessity give rise to social service. But the days of the acquisitive society are numbered. In the new functional society of the future, education will not be regarded as a preparation for life in society but rather as a vital part of it. This is an important distinction, with such far-reaching implications that it is difficult to envisage the reversal of current educational ideals involved. From such an attempt two outstanding principles emerge:

1. That the lengthened educational process must be thought of as an essential and vital experience, forming an integral part of the life of an individual; not merely as a *preparation* for living.
2. That the incentives in education,

from the point of view of discipline and of work, must be of an entirely different nature, reflecting the changed incentives prevalent in society as a whole.

The first principle becomes of prime importance not merely as a result of the new conception of society and of the function of the educational system within it, but because of the probable extension of the period of educational tutelage. It has been suggested that a Ministry of Education should control the development of young persons from birth until the age of twenty-one. If this happens, the nature of the educational tutelage must be substantially changed. It would be disastrous, both for the individual and for society, if the period of dependence, of 'semi-childhood, semi-adulthood', which 'has no basis in the physical, physiological, or mental make-up of the individual'² should be unduly prolonged. The result would be an increase in tension in family, school, and working unit, and an accentuation of the difficulties which are already associated with adolescent development in our existing form of society. The natural resentment of the adolescent, whose maturing rational powers receive little recognition, who finds himself 'hedged in on all sides by the short-sighted prohibitions of adults',³ and who experiences a growing sense of frustration from the failure to be allowed to actively determine the major constituents of his own welfare, is emphasised in most studies in adolescent psychology. The extension of the school leaving age will accentuate the problems arising from this sense of frustration unless both the community and the school not only permit, but actively encourage, a much greater measure of self-determination in organized adolescent groups.

Some aspects of the new Youth Movement give ground for hope in

² *Adolescent Psychology*, A. H. Arlitt (American Book Co., 1937, p. 7).

³ *Recent Investigations into the Psychology of Adolescence*, D. M. Riddell. (Unpublished M.A. Thesis, London University, 1936.)

¹ *The Psychological Needs of Children and their Relation to Behaviour*. Colsell Sanders. (Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, London University, 1938, pp. 6-7.)

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The following Pamphlets have recently appeared:—No. 57, *Greece*, by Lt.-Col. Stanley Casson; No. 58, *Great Britain and China*, by Sir John Pratt; No. 59, *Who Mussolini Is*, by Ivor Thomas; and No. 60, *War at Sea To-day*, by Admiral Sir Herbert Richmond.

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this direction, but some of the older forms of educational organization, with their vested interests and petty forms of authority, may prove extremely unadaptable and resistant to real change. As examples of this, apart from our own experience, we need only recall the petty tyrannies recently described by secondary school masters and mistresses in letters to *The Times Educational Supplement* (after the publication of an article 'On Present Discontents'), or the criticism of some of the residential Teacher Training Colleges contained in articles and letters in the same journal during the course of 1941. These would suggest that some of the latter institutions still retain too many of their ecclesiastical prejudices and still aim at the semi-monastic seclusion and autocratic *regime* which the writer experienced twelve years ago. The resulting state of incipient revolt, which rarely came to the surface because of economic fear, could hardly prove a sound training ground for the kind of experimental mind which is now needed to adapt the educational system to serve

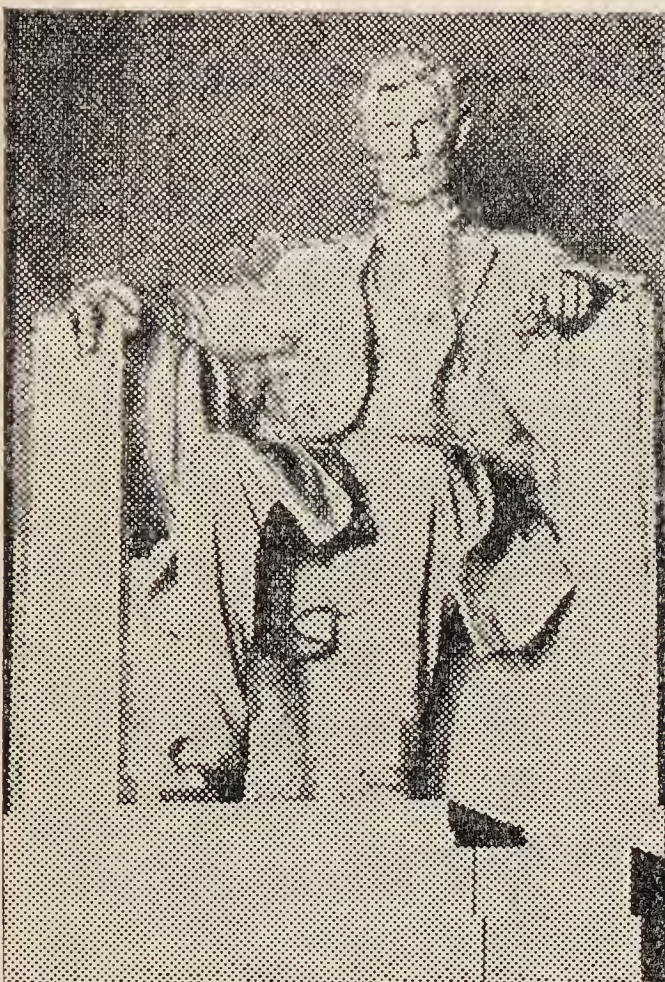
the needs of the future. In so far as these conditions still exist, they must provide a potential source of social inertia and be a grave menace to successful adaptation in the coming period of transition.

In dealing with children and adolescents we must discover how to extend the sphere of adult influence while lessening the scope of adult authority. We must cease to think of life as being divided into a number of phases, the earlier of which have to find their justification as a preparation for the latter. The art of life is surely to live completely and adequately through each phase, and to discard it gracefully as it passes. Each phase of life must justify itself by the quality and adequacy of its experience *at that time*. Childhood is justified by its own inherent joys and emotional tone, not as a mere preparation for an adulthood which is for many so stale and unsatisfactory that they regret the passage of time and become preoccupied with cosmetically setting back the clock.

The educational implications of this view of life will be clear if we consider for a moment the things

we now justify by thinking of childhood and adolescence as preparatory years. By it we condemn many children to hours of 'compulsory homework', which so frequently leaves little time for the real business of living. By it we turn the last stages of the Junior School into a cramming shop for the special place examination. By it we justify the teaching of reading at too early an age in the interests of the Junior School, and prescribe an academic school certificate course for the practically minded children of fee-paying parents, because industry demands a school certificate, and so on. In terms of the approach to the curriculum alone our first principle involves a reorientation of viewpoint which is, in itself, a minor educational revolution.

Our second principle states that radical changes will be necessary in the incentives we use to induce sound work and to develop a corporate spirit. In this connection we need to remember that the means by which we justify existing incentives may be entirely invalid in the new functional society, even if they have some appearance of validity now. At present each individual school tends to consider itself a self-contained unit, whose *raison d'être* is to preserve its characteristic identity and to maintain its reputation in the immediate neighbourhood. In many ways these are worthy aims, but unless considerably tempered by a human interest in individual cases, or by a clear sense of the function of the school in society, they may lead to practices which are far from wholesome. Too often in the Junior School the reputation of the school is assessed on the proportion of special places gained in comparison with other schools, while in the Secondary School it becomes inextricably linked with the personal prestige of the headmaster. A special place holder may therefore be expelled from a Secondary School for some social misdemeanour, and sent back to the Elementary School where, under less favourable conditions, someone has to tackle his individual problems if he is to be kept out of the Juvenile Court. This kind of thing could only arise in a system which permits the so-called reputation of an individual school to be of greater importance than the welfare



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Foreword by

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of individuals or the needs of society.

It is well sometimes to pause and consider the educational ends we wish to achieve and the methods we use to secure them. What, for example, should be our attitude to corporal punishment, still far more prevalent in the state schools here than is generally admitted? In a recent piece of research on this subject it has been stated that 'with young children the corrective influence of a sharp stroke with the cane is of greater benefit than the most sympathetic explanations that rely on powers not yet developed'.¹ Professor Valentine also says: 'There are no psychological grounds for the doctrine that all punishment and restraint are wrong.'² But at most, punishment can never be more than a negative approach to the problem of anti-social conduct. The continuance of the need for corporal punishment in a school is a grave reflection upon its corporate spirit and a sign of failure. A healthy school society exerts a moral force by the active identification of each member with the purpose of the whole. School discipline, in the only true sense of the term, results from personal identification with the ends of the school society, the development of a sense of freedom and psychic security within it; belief in the fundamental validity of school work, and hence a desire to minister to the communal good. None of these things can be induced by punishment, which is, in the long run, more likely to prevent than to foster the development of attitudes upon which sound discipline is based. The recent advocacy of birching as a remedy for juvenile delinquency shows our failure to recognize the natural effect upon children of the values implicit in adult society, and their formative influence upon juvenile behaviour. While adults continue to show a complete disregard for human life and property, while 'toughness' is applauded and fear derided, we can hardly expect children and young persons to continue to exhibit all the moral virtues which we have ourselves temporarily discarded.

¹ *Punishment in Schools*, K. D. Hopkins (Brit. Journal of Educational Psychology, Feb. 1939, pp. 8-27).

² *The Difficult Child and the Problem of Discipline*, C. W. Valentine (Methuen, 1940, p. 24).

The virtues we wish to foster in our young people must first be exemplified in the lives of individuals and implicit in the structure of adult society.

To return to our consideration of school incentives, what shall we say of the House System, that second-hand relic of the public schools? In its original setting it corresponded with a natural unit in the life of a boarding school. In the state schools it has no such justification but is defended on the ground that it provides a good cross-section of the school for sports purposes, is a focal point for youthful enthusiasm, and aids the growth of *esprit de corps* and the maintenance of school discipline. For sports purposes it is undoubtedly useful, but it is difficult to claim more than that for it. Artificially created enthusiasm of an easily exploitable kind is very useful in an institution which can find no natural valid reasons for individual effort, but this is a criticism of the institution rather than a justification of the House machinery which it uses. House marks used as a stimulus for work would seem to be a tacit admission that the work has insufficient intrinsic validity and no fundamental social purpose. House marks used as a means of maintaining discipline place the need for good social behaviour upon an entirely artificial plane, and prevent the development of the educative function of life in a school community. Briefly, the incentive to work must be the validity of the work itself; the incentive to good behaviour must be the necessities of a functional school community. Perhaps this is what another writer had in mind when she said: 'Interest and effort, it is suggested, should be expended rather on feeding pupils' natural curiosity concerning human affairs than in attempting to produce an *esprit de corps* which is only conditionally transferable, and which may act as a positive barrier to the development of wider loyalties.'³

In the sphere of school work artificial stimuli are very extensively used. First comes that mathematical abstraction known as 'marks', by whose aid we can express in the same terms the value

³ *The Education of the Emotions*, Margaret Phillips (Allen and Unwin, 1937, p. 133).

of an original drawing or poem, a mathematical calculation, a historical essay, a geographical sketch map, a good memory for French verbs, a piece of homework written in a quiet room, or one undertaken in competition with the wisecracks of Tommy Handley or the sombre repetition of the wireless news. Being fully satisfied with the justice of this procedure, we have an occasional examination with numerous papers to test widely dissimilar skills and forms of knowledge. The answers are 'marked' by the subjective estimates of different teachers whose standards may differ greatly, the average percentage mark is abstracted and the results placed in rank order known as a 'class list'. The resulting 'class position' of the unfortunate pupil, who has now been averaged out of all human reality, figures prominently on the term report which is sent out to parents and is often almost their only contact with the school. We attempt to justify this strangely unreal procedure because it 'gives the parent something he can understand', and 'provides healthy competition in the form'.

Experience bears out neither of these contentions. The competition for form places is often far from healthy, the struggle for higher form positions not infrequently replaces rather than stimulates the desire for a more satisfactory level of achievement. In any case, the differing innate endowment of the pupils makes relative attainment no real index of endeavour, and the mark list tends to breed discouragement at precisely those levels where discouragement can prove so disastrous to individual effort. Moreover, our attempt to express the diverse efforts, successes and failures in terms of an arithmetical average gives the parent an over-simplified index and effectively obscures the realities of the educational process. The mark system can be justified only as a preparation of the child for individual competition; in the new society it must be replaced by more effective mental measurements designed to assist individuals to develop their unique potential powers in the service of the community. Fortunately many teachers are too wise to apply the existing system rigidly, and mitigate its worst effects though they rarely

challenge the assumptions upon which it rests.

There is no space in which to deal with the pressure similarly exerted by the fear of failure in an external examination. Much has already been said of it in other places. When teachers are more fully conscious of the real social functions of education, when society itself is sufficiently vital to give coherence and purpose to the lives of the individuals which compose it, we shall lose our morbid pre-occupation with relative measurement and shall concentrate upon our proper educative task, which is the development and enrichment of unique individual personality. It is a fallacy to assume that children can only be induced to work by the introduction of artificial incentives which provide immediate rewards. The human organism, by its very nature, wants to grow and develop, to extend the breadth of its understanding and the range of its experience. What children do resist is the attempt to stuff them with an accumulation of intellectual lumber and sterile facts which have no social relevance in our own time.

There is, of course, no single recipe for educational revolution; a new type of approach is needed on many sides. School work must be progressively adapted to the interests and innate capacity of the children, and we must develop and make provision for the use of more accurate diagnostic techniques in cases of individual difficulty. The causes of psychological insecurity and social maladjustment must be more intensively studied, and more adequate provision made for bringing the results of such researches before the notice of practising and intending teachers, so that they may influence school life more quickly and directly. At the same time the construction of the curriculum must be objectively examined both from the point of view of content and method, to ensure that each part of it has continued relevance in the light of new social needs. By such means the necessity for existing artificial incentives may be removed, and a school community created which is inspired by the search for truth, conscious of its social purpose, and disciplined by its desire to equip itself for service.

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Extract from the IXth, the XVIth and the Annual Reports of the Hampstead Nurseries

TONY is an outstanding example of those cases where children pass through too many hands, receive one shock of separation after the other, and in the end withdraw into themselves and completely lose their emotional contact with the outer world.

He was admitted to our Country House in September, 1941, at the age of $2\frac{3}{4}$. He was a delicate little boy of graceful, charming appearance, friendly but non-committal, rather lost and without emotional contact with anybody. His face was expressionless; a stereotyped smile would appear at times. He was neither shy nor forward, ready to stay where he was put and did not seem afraid of the new surroundings. He made no distinction between one grown-up and another, clung to no one and avoided no one. He ate, slept, and played, and was no trouble to anybody; the one abnormal feature about him was that he seemed completely devoid of any emotion. All we could learn about circumstances was that his father was a private in the army and his mother a patient in a T.B. sanatorium. An aunt who visited him knew few particulars, but promised to write and ask the mother to let us know as much as possible of the experiences the child had had all by himself during the mother's illness. We quote the following from the mother's letter: '... Tony hasn't had any complaints only measles which he had last December, they lasted a week, but nothing else whatever, he has always eaten well and slepp well, when Tony was 8 months old his daddy was called up for the Army, up till he was two years of age there was just Tony and I on our own so of course he had his freedom, was allowed to play in the garden, etc. and was a happy, carefree little boy, but last year we decided to go to his daddy for a while, I was only there quite a short time when I had a hæmorrhage, of course it came quite a shock to me when I learned what was wrong as I had felt so well, I never had the slightest suspicion of it or I should not have gone all those miles from home to leave my baby at the mercy of strangers, however I went into the

Sanatorium in December 1940 and the woman who we were staying with said she would take care of Tony, during the time she had him his daddy used to go to see him and he said it got on his nerves to hear her keep saying to the child, "Don't do this and dont do that" and as time wore on he noticed Tony was being cowed down and when his daddy took him sweets he would give them to his lady and sit there and wait for her to give him one, he was never allowed to play out in the garden and when his father went on Sunday mornings to take him out she always made the excuse that he was not bathed, and then on evenings she would put him to bed just before his dad arrived, this went on for 6 months this was the period I was in the Sanatorium. I was up all day and had been for quite a while and I was feeling very well so I decided to come back to London and let some one in my own family take care of Tony, and I would finish my treatment in a Sanatorium down here, but I was disappointed when I got home I found my sisters had all got government jobs and could not leave them, so I said unless I found somebody suitable I would never leave him again and it was during this time I had him that I noticed he was not the happy carefree little boy that I had left, he had altered completely, seemed to be frightened of every little thing he did, he would say "Can I do this, can I do that", he would never do anything of his own free will in case it was wrong, I would say "yes" to everything he wanted just to get him back to his old ways, and it made me realise how very much he must have been kept down... I then got the chance to come to this Sanatorium and as we know some one in the country we thought it would be a good idea to ask her if she would like to have Tony, thinking he would have a good home and the freedom of the fields to play in, she seemed to jump at the idea of having him and she ask me to pay her 15/- a week, but I was so pleased to think that she was going to have him that I ask her to accept 18/- as the cost of living was so dear and would not be much money in for her labour,

this she accepted, so I came away to settle down and get better, thinking that little Tony was now settled and I would not have the same worry as I had before of him being tied down and watched about, but she was very particular, in the home, and I guessed that she turned out to be the same as the other one, however she wrote me a letter after a month and told me what a good little soul Tony was and what clean ways he had, but at the same time referring to not wanting him any longer. I never took no notice and a fortnight after I got a letter from her saying she had turned him over to a nursery with the feeble excuse that he wetted the bed, but now when I sit and think of the different places he has been to and the way he has been treated, Mrs. N. has done me a good turn in the long run by getting Tony into your nursery, now he can play with other children and do just as he pleases without somebody continually saying "Dont do this and that", so I hope he will soon get back to his jolly carefree ways as I am sure he will do by the description my sister gave me of the nursery. Well, Matron, I hope I have not bored you stiff with this long letter, but I have described to you as best I can as to where Tony has been since my illness...'

We remained in correspondence with the mother, sent her several letters and reports about Tony's progress and heard from the father who visited twice when on leave that she received them with great pleasure. Her answers stopped when she was not allowed to write any more. We heard nothing more until the information came that she had died.

Tony, who is completely ignorant of all these happenings, has in the meantime formed a violent attachment to our sick-nurse. His liking for a former nurse, who had, as he called it, given him his 'temperchure',¹ passed, and he gave no visible signs of upset when she left us. But in December he went down with scarlet fever and spent

¹ See *New Era*, April-May 1942, p. 82, for a description of how in our house Tony first regained some of his feelings in contact with a nurse who held him in her arms while she was taking his temperature.

weeks in the sick-room under the care of our Sister Mary. He began to like her very much, and this attachment deepened when again, a few weeks later, he returned to the sick-room with some minor illness. At the same time he began to lose his impersonal behaviour, and all sorts of very vivid and passionate character traits started to appear.

This first period of his love for Sister Mary was by no means a happy one. He treated her as his possession, but his early experiences had already taught him how easily possessions can be lost. This tinged his affection for her with a continual fear and insecurity. He would cling to her desperately, would be violently jealous whenever he saw her handle other children and would demand her sole attention which he could not get. Once, on a walk, when other children took her hand, he called out excitedly: 'That is my hand!' Curiously enough, he restricted this demand to the left hand only. Sister Mary was allowed to give her right hand to the other children but he himself would then not touch that hand any more. He wavered continually between expression of his devotion for her and of anger and resentment. When she gave him his evening bath he would throw his toys and his teddy bear into the tub and then accuse her of having done it. In the middle of the night he would wake up and scream for her. But, in spite of all this violent display of emotion, he was at that time not yet able to run towards Sister Mary when he met her. He would only look up at her and smile shyly. Only when she lifted him up would he throw his arms around her neck and then look suddenly completely happy for a moment.

The most conflicting time for him was always bedtime. From the moment of undressing onwards he would cry quietly. Whatever he was asked, he would answer 'No' to. 'I do not like my Teddy, my car and I do not like you.' He would order Sister Mary out of the room when she stayed with him, and he cried for her return when she was gone. She usually had to take him out of his bed once more and only after he had cried quietly to himself for a few minutes in the bathroom would he, suddenly peaceful, allow her to tuck him into bed.

He was no bed-wetter at this time. The symptom had completely disappeared the moment he entered our house.

This period was certainly not easy, either for him or for the Sister, who at times had serious doubts whether the attachment to her was not more harmful than helpful to the child. Onlookers were specially worried by the disappearance of all the superficial adaptation which he had shown before. His obedience was gone. The 'good' little boy who was ready to fit in with every routine had changed to a violently demanding child, quite able to upset a whole bedroom full of children.

The Sister's own patience and interest, and some encouragement offered from our side helped her to see the situation through. She met Tony's stormy outbreaks with unfailing kindness and affection. The result was that his reactions changed after a surprisingly short time. He now became very intimate with her. He performed all sorts of small tasks for her and he even told her something about his very few scraps of memory. 'You know, Mary, my daddy carried my mummy in his arms.' He can now feel more sure about her even when he is separated from her in the house. He plays in the nursery while she is busy in the sickroom. He only has to know where she is and to be given complete freedom to run and look for her at any moment. When he has been dressed in his nursery in the morning, he now rushes over to her part of the house, throws his arms around her to say good morning, and then, like lightning, rushes off again to get his breakfast. Instead of accusing her of committing all his misdeeds as he did before, he now shares with her the glory of his actions. Once, when he was helping her in the sick-room, a young nurse played with him and he, in fun, pretended to be strong enough to knock her over. He shouted with delight and, after she had left the room, turned to the Sister and said: 'Didn't we kick her, Mary, didn't we?' Whenever she passes him in the house, he will just quietly look up and then say: 'That was my own Mary.'

There are interesting signs to show that with growing security his attachment has a tendency to

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become unselfish. When she told him one day that she was leaving the house to post a letter in the village, he just nodded without complaining and said to the other children: 'My Mary has her off day to-day'. When she went to London for a few days on leave, she prepared him carefully for the separation and found him eager to help her pack her bag. He stood quietly on the steps of the house to wave good-bye to her. And when the car which was supposed to take her moved forward a few yards to another position, he suddenly screamed out in great excitement: 'Mary, Mary, you must

get in or they will go without you.' At that moment he had quite forgotten his own longing for her in the desire to see her plans fulfilled.

This progress in his return to normal emotions and affections cannot be expected to run along smoothly and uninterruptedly. He still returns to more difficult moods when he is restless in his sleep and suddenly wakes up weeping: 'My Mary has not said good-night to me.' He is more clinging on these days and less ready to remain with the other children. Bed-wetting now reappears at times, usually when he has experienced some disappointment during daytime. But even on these more troubled days he remains open, affectionate and in good contact with his surroundings.

He was extremely shaken one day when another soldier-father came on leave. He saw a man, very much his father's height and in the same uniform come up the drive and rushed out to meet him. When he realized that the face he looked up to was that of a stranger he stopped in his tracks and began to scream. He was carried back to Sister Mary to be comforted, but he sobbed for hours and then, rather compulsively repeated to himself over and over again a sentence which she had used to quiet him: 'All soldier daddies look alike in their uniforms.' We only need to compare the extreme violence and liveliness of his emotions with the complete lack of emotional response which he had shown to realize what forces of repression had been at work in him.

He is an unusually beautiful child, and he looks healthy. But to our concern he does not gain weight or loses shortly whatever he has gained. His examination for T.B. was negative before he came to us. But we intend to have him X-rayed again in the near future.

Tony has so far not been told of his mother's death. When his father is on his next army leave he will have to tell him. Consciously, the news may mean little to him by now. He has not seen his mother for eighteen months and he did not recognize a photo of her shown to him the other day.

On our urging, his father now sends him postcards with messages which Tony enjoys greatly and carries about with him.

Community Schools for Adolescents

Evelyn M. Blott

AFTER twenty-six years in the service of youth, mostly in a residential capacity, I have formed the hope that the time will soon come when we can embark upon a more purposeful training for all young people.

The age which seems to me to need special attention is the adolescent, and in this article I propose to outline a scheme of work which has been in my mind for some time.

At about the age of twelve or thirteen the child is conscious of a restlessness and an urge to express himself in some concrete form, and at the same time he begins to wonder about this world and what it requires of him. He experiences also a desire for space in which to grow, and time to reflect untrammelled by familiar habits and associations.

To direct the child's education at this stage along channels which mainly develop the mind instead of giving equal opportunity to the release of physical energy and scope for the satisfaction of creating is wasteful at the best and destructive at the worst. This should be a period of steady mental and spiritual assimilation along with physical exertion, at the child's natural pace stimulated by interest and, above all, *purpose*.

My suggestion is that the schools which exist (and let us keep as much variety as possible to avoid mass-produced humanity) should continue, with modifications, to cater for the child up to the age of twelve. At this age the child should be moved to what I am going to call Community Schools, where they will live in a community, and work for that community in real earnest.

These Community Schools might very properly be situated on the outskirts of the towns, but within easy reach of them. Suitably adapted country houses with sufficient land would be very convenient for the purpose. In what follows I am assuming they should be co-educational establishments.

The child should spend three years in the Community School and should be encouraged to go home on alternate week-ends in order to preserve contact with the home. Residence is essential to the

life of a community but at the same time it is very desirable that the home should play as great a part as possible in order to preserve individuality, and to foster domestic intimacies. It is not enough to give town schools technical departments, that is only half-tackling the problem and really applies only to the technically-minded. *All* children need this spell of practical training, in a suitable environment, for their full development.

The 'Practical' side of my scheme is based on the essentials of life, and as far as possible originating from natural resources. I purposely do not include engineering as it savours too much of the city and its complicity—it can fit in at a later date.

The curriculum should be divided into two main sections:

(1) Practical Occupation.

(2) Cultural Training.

The first should be followed in the mornings. At or about mid-day there should be a break of two hours for shower-baths or swimming, changing out of working clothes, the mid-day meal and a rest of at least three quarters of an hour. This break should be followed by cultural training. Organized games, Scouting and Guiding should fall into place at the week-ends. There should be no homework, but a good library should be provided.

The schemes for practical work can be briefly stated as follows, and the boy and girl should be allowed to choose which course (one only) he or she will follow:

Boys

- (1) Dairy farming (cows, goats, pigs, poultry).
 - (2) Horticulture.
 - (3) Forestry, carpentry and simple house-repairs.
 - (4) Pottery, brick and tile making, building, simple architecture and town planning.
 - (5) Leather-work, bookbinding and shoe repairing.
- (Costing and estimating should be brought in wherever possible in all these courses.)

GIRLS

- (1) Dairy farming (as above).
- (2) Home gardening and garden

design, basketry, pottery and simple architecture.

- (3) Spinning, vegetable-dyeing, weaving, dressmaking, house decorating, upholstering.
- (4) Cookery, housewifery and the care of the child. Accounts. (This last (4) should be taken by every girl for the last year.)

The cultural work for boys and girls should consist of:

- (1) Old Testament history (shortly), the life and teaching of Christ.
- (2) Botany, zoology, human physiology, first aid and home nursing.
- (3) Music — choral — orchestral (optional) — musical appreciation and history of music.
- (4) Drawing — lettering — design — block printing — sketching (all to link with practical occupations).
- (5) Dramatic art — verse speaking — mythology through the ages. A good deal of time given to character study through Shakespeare.
- (6) Citizenship (through history but not only British), Travel (allied to geography). A simple study of past civilizations. Current events.
- (7) Dancing (folk) of many lands — specially Greek.
- (8) A modern language (one only, and optional).

These schools should house not more than 150 children and because of their productive nature they should be less expensive than may appear at first sight. All the work would be done by the boys and girls. Residence gives the opportunity to develop self-reliance and citizenship by common service.

There should be no examinations during these years, good work should be actuated by pride in the finished article and by the appreciation of the community.

From the physical standpoint residence ensures sufficient sleep, fresh air, recreation and suitable food.

This scheme of work should be the same for all classes, with no privileges, though the parent should have some say as to which of the Community Schools he would like his child to join. This would mean that the choice would be guided by results: the school which turned out socially responsible people in the greatest proportion would be the most sought after.

It might be possible for the

parents of the children in the schools to form Guilds in connection with them, in which free discussion of methods and results should be permitted. The Guilds could be under the chairmanship of an independent psychologist who would act as friend and adviser to parents and staff.

The staffs of these schools should be freer than are those of existing schools so that they would have the chance of taking part in public life. They should be able to make a valuable contribution to municipal activities and gain thereby experience which would enrich their teaching. Teachers on the cultural side might possibly be shared between two or three Community Schools spending two or three days a week at each.

At the end of the Community stage some, with academic inclinations, would probably begin to specialize at a senior school, whilst others should be encouraged to seek part-time paid employment, continuing meanwhile compulsory education on a set day or days each week. It does not matter what the employment is, it may or may not be the beginning of a career and it need have no connection with the practical training in the Community School—the point is that he is earning in a modest way and gaining experience of life with adults.

In the course of compulsory education at this stage opportunities could be given to specialize in mathematics, science, languages or the Arts. A simple study of humanism might fit in here; also the technical, commercial and trade schools. Practical social service should be encouraged.

It will be argued that the three years lost to science, etc., will be a serious setback for those who intend to pursue an academic career, but my belief is that the student will be fresher and will forge ahead more quickly as a result of this broader application.

At the age of seventeen the part-time wage-earner should make his decision as to the future and go into full-time employment. Adult education should, from this point, be carried on on a voluntary basis. This subject has been most ably discussed by Sir Richard Livingstone in *The Future in Education*.

In conclusion, the value of the dual nature of the training in a

THE NEW ERA

N.B.—The next issue will be the September - October number published on October 1st.

Community School lies in the fact that it should result in a more balanced personality, broadening the one-track mind, developing the inert idea, and engendering an understanding and respect for others and their work.

It is desirable that these schools be in attractive surroundings as, at this receptive stage, the child will absorb unconsciously as well as consciously the freshness and simplicity of a healthy life.

If by passing through this school the boy and girl have acquired a taste for knowledge, assimilated in some measure the spirit of fellowship and a desire to work for the common progress, then we shall have indeed proved that 'education is the handmaid of the art of living'.

Course in Post-War Reconstruction

A Training Course in social welfare is being held at Hamilton House, Bloomsbury, from June 1st to July 31st for Allied social workers. The Course has been organized by a Sub-Committee of the Liaison Committee of Women's International Organizations, with the co-operation of the Allied Governments and the British Council. There are 25 full-time and 55 part-time students, all women, and those who cannot afford two months' non-earning time are subsidized by their respective governments and by the British Council.

The five main headings are: Conditions of Physical Health (21 lectures); Conditions of Mental Health (24 lectures); The Structure and Administration of the Social Services (36 lectures); Problems of Leisure (3 lectures); and Delinquency (6 lectures). The whole of one day in each week is spent in visits of observation.

The present course is full, but particulars may be had from Miss Younghusband, A.M.W., Hamilton House, Bidborough Street, W.C.1. The idea seems to have been worked out in a most practical manner, and it is to be hoped that it may lead to further developments, including perhaps courses for refugees from enemy countries, who are in as much need as anybody of a forum from which they can plan their reconstructional activities, against the time when they can return home.

ENGLISH NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Bulletin No. 4

July 1942

H. G. STEAD, Organizing Secretary,
St. Ermyrn's, Ashover, Derbyshire

After a long search for a suitable place for the Summer Conference, we have been fortunate enough to secure the use of the Physical Training College, Bedford. The thanks of the Fellowship are due to Dr. E. C. Walker, the Director of Education for Bedford, and to Miss Stansfeld, the Principal of the College, for their assistance in this matter. Bedford is a good centre, noted for its varied provision for education and surrounded by charming and historic country. The river provides facilities for boating, and the train service is excellent for these days. The Conference will assemble after lunch on August 4th and disperse after luncheon August 8th. By the time these notes arrive, all members will have received a notice relating to the Conference. About 100 can be accommodated and under first-class conditions.

As has been indicated, the Conference will be one concerned mainly with serious study of the major reconstruction proposals which have been put forward. For example, both the N.U.T. and the Association of Directors have already published their recommendations and other bodies have proposals under discussion. The Conference will consider these and bring to this consideration a critical judgment. Each member of the Conference will receive, in due course, a summarised statement of proposals made so far and this document will form the basis of the discussions.

On the first evening there will be a general survey of the field by some speaker and thereafter, the Conference will divide into six commissions, each dealing with some section of the field.

These sections will be as follows :

Commission A : The Pre-School Child.

Commission B : The School Child—Primary Range.

Commission C : The School Child—Post-Primary Range.

Commission D : Education and Industry.

Commission E : Adult Education (including Teacher Training).

Commission F : Administration.

Each Commission will have its own Chairman and Secretary and two or more Commissions can unite for joint meetings. The last morning will see the whole Conference in session to receive the Reports presented by the various Commissions and to decide on any action considered necessary.

Such a Conference should appeal to all those members of the E.N.E.F. who wish to be aware of current movements and proposals. The specialist in each field will be able to hear and discuss what is taking place in his or her particular field and also to form a picture of the whole field into which the individual proposals must be integrated.

It is now suggested that a new Education Bill will be introduced into Parliament late this year or early next year. This makes the present the most appropriate time at which to discuss the proposals which have been put forward as a basis for legislation. Members of the E.N.E.F. must have a knowledge of these proposals and of their implications if they are to be foci round which informed opinion can crystallize. Surely this is one of the major functions of the E.N.E.F. It is because we stand for education primarily and not for any particular sectional interest that we can exert an influence and view the field as a whole. It is hoped that there will be a large attendance and that each will come prepared to contribute to the discussions. At the end of the Conference members should, at least, have a knowledge of the proposals before the country and have formed some opinion as to the basis for sound legislation.

During the Bedford Conference a General Meeting of the E.N.E.F. will be held—the first

General Meeting since the outbreak of war. It will be held on Friday, August 7th, at 8 p.m., and it is hoped that there will be a good and representative attendance of members. The members present at the Ripon Conference passed a series of recommendations which are being

considered by the Executive Committee, and the results will be before the Bedford meeting. There is no doubt that, by its effectiveness in these vital days, the Fellowship will be judged. Because the opportunity is great our responsibility is great. We need to make the Fellowship an effective weapon in the fight for a sound educational system.

There are bright chances of the revival of the old group at Reading and at Sheffield. At **Groups** Reading, information can be obtained from Mr. D. March, Pendragon Hall, 59 Bath Road, Reading, or from Mr. I. Michael, Flat A, 1 Alexandra Road, Reading. At Sheffield, Miss Gray, The Education Office, Sheffield, is assisting. The groups are gradually getting to work, and it is this local activity alone which can make a genuine fellowship of our members. 'There is no joy like that of those who sweat together in a common task.'

The following facts are worth placing on record. Some time ago, the Organizing Secretary was asked to address a small gathering of Trade Unionists in Chesterfield (in a private capacity). Subsequently these men and their friends formed themselves into an E.N.E.F. group. They did so because they were certain that the ability to participate effectively in social and political affairs depended upon the kind of education they received. But the delightful thing is how they went into action. They engaged a large Hall in Chesterfield for a meeting on Whit-Sunday evening. They sold tickets in their works and factories. They ran the meeting themselves, unsupported by any 'names'. And they assembled an audience of between 150 and 200 and held a meeting, which, by common consent, was the best ever held in the Town concerned with education. It was addressed by Dr. Lincoln Ralphs (of Sheffield), Dr. Fried (Czechoslovakia) and Dr. H. G. Stead.

And the audience went home feeling that education was a vital question—their remarks as they left the Hall showed that. This group is now planning to bring together all groups concerned, in any way, with education at a joint meeting in September. In their own area they have led a number of people to realize that good education is a prime function of the good community.

The April issue of the Journal of the P.E.A. of America (the American branch of the *Progressive Education* N.E.F.) has just come to hand. It deals with Rural Schools and their special difficulties in war-time and contains a wealth of excellent material. Evacuation has brought a host of problems to many rural areas in this country; in America the war has brought in its train difficulties in similar areas arising from war conditions.

The Editor quotes a series of recommendations made by a group of rural educators who met at the Mid-West Section of the P.E.A.'s National Conference. He adds: 'What these people say makes sense for all educators', and because this is so the nine points are reproduced here:

'First, we urge teachers to maintain in their schools a sane and homelike atmosphere free from undue stress and hatreds arising from the demands of war. We recommend a school program that affords children chances to learn from real life situations whenever practical, to get experience in co-operation, and to learn how to make democracy work.

'Second, we recommend for all schools a plan for health development that includes (a) improvement of the pupils' diet through the school-community hot lunch program, (b) provision for children to learn good health habits through correct practice in daily living, and (c) the correction of physical defects.

'Third, we believe that, through studies of local history, culture, and social problems and through participation in rural improvement projects undertaken by the community, teachers and children can contribute greatly to the unity and morale so essential to a people involved in war.

'Fourth, in view of the severe shortage of teachers and the wide-

spread interchange of teachers because those regularly employed are called to new jobs, we earnestly urge school boards to consider seriously their children's welfare before letting good teachers go. We believe that under no circumstances should the professional standards of teachers be lowered.

'Fifth, to make funds reach as far as possible, we recommend that small schools be combined to the extent that each teacher may have a group of pupils large enough for satisfactory teaching and learning.

'Sixth, we trust that former teachers who return to teaching and those without teaching experience who accept schools for the emergency will while in service study how to conduct a modern rural school. We urge institutions that prepare teachers to offer additional practical courses for such emergency teachers through summer workshops and Saturday and evening classes. We believe that all teachers, school supervisors, and other rural educational workers should, through reading, study and discussion clubs, extension courses, and workshops, increase their ability to meet their war tasks.

'Seventh, because shortening school terms for farm work or other work or lengthening weekly hours of study may be mentally and physically harmful to pupils, we sincerely urge communities to avoid ill-advised attempts to hasten unduly the process of education.

'Eighth, we commend those teachers' colleges and schools of education that are providing specialized preparation for teachers of one-room schools, consolidated schools, town or village schools, and city schools and that are increasing their efforts to meet the individual needs of students.

'Ninth, we are convinced that no national sacrifice will be too great that will enable children and young people to stay in school, to secure the kind of education they need and wish, and eventually to make their fullest contribution to the nation.'

The problem of guidance is the subject of another illuminating article and is based upon the theme 'Learn the child before you teach him'. It points out that any sound system of child guidance must be rooted in two essential questions:

(a) What do I know about this child?

(b) What am I doing about this knowledge?

How often is the second question found to be a cause for stumbling? It is knowledge in action that should characterize the activities of the N.E.F.

I am tempted to quote the following because it gives point to much that has been written in these notes on previous occasions.

'The three major aspects of a guidance or counselling or child-study program are:

1. *Knowing as much as possible about child growth and development in general.* This is where our specialists, including the psychologist, the psychiatrist, the psychiatric-social worker and the physicians can be of most help to the general educator.

2. *Knowing each child well in particular,* using indirect and informal "interviews" and other methods.

3. *Providing opportunities for the best type of growth and development,* again applying the indirect and informal manner. Teachers often refer to this as "setting the stage".

Some of the basic principles which emerge from this interpretation of guidance are:

1. The principle of *initial* rather than remedial child study. Study, learn, know the child before he gets into trouble, before he comes a "problem" child. Just as in the field of reading, where some specialists have overemphasized remedial reading to the neglect of adequate initial instruction, so in most guidance programs the emphasis is put on the remedial rather than the preventive techniques.

2. The principle of entirety, or the realization that the program must be planned for the whole child and for every child. The emotions to-day are more important than one's occupational plans for tomorrow; and the "good" child needs encouragement as well as the troublesome one.

3. The principle of inter-relationship, or the realization that it is impossible to separate one's progress or lack of it in arithmetic, for instance, from one's social and emotional growth or retardation.

It naturally follows that, broadly speaking, the main criteria for evaluating any program of child study would be these:

1. Do I really *know* each child in my care?

2. Do I *apply* this knowledge in such a way as to make the most of it in the everyday life of the child ?'

One other article attracted my attention. It is entitled 'Education of Rural School Board Members' and commences 'As are the School Board Members so are the Schools.' How true—and how much we can sympathize with this desire to 'educate our masters'. The article described how, for the past eight years, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation has 'subsidized a broad educational program of community betterment in seven counties of South Western Michigan'. The education of School Board Members is one of its prime objectives. 'One method used is the employment of one-day institutes for School Board Members in each county . . . At such meetings increasing emphasis is placed upon instructional problems, curriculum content, and methods of teaching, rather than upon finance and legislation'. I can visualize the E.N.E.F. organizing a Summer School for the instruction of members of Education Committees !!!

The National Union of Students which recently held its annual Congress at Birmingham, has now issued **A Students' Conference** a report (Students Answer Fascism, obtainable from the N.U.S., 3 King's Parade, Cambridge). Those members who were at Exeter and heard Mr. S. A. Checkland speak there, will be interested in this Report. The Congress was attended by some 1,500 students from 85 Universities and Colleges. This represents one in seventeen of all the students in the country and made the Birmingham meeting the most representative Student Congress ever held in England. The analysis of the delegates which is printed in the Report makes interesting reading. There were 572 men and 812 women, and the average age of the students was 20 years, 2 months. The representation of the various faculties was as follows: Arts, 398; Science, 227; Education, 223; Medicine, 205; Social Science, 166; Engineering, 92; Agriculture, 32. Of the delegates 404 were members of political societies; 316 members of religious societies; 1,016 members of faculty societies, while 197 belonged to no

society. 935 came from Secondary Schools and 260 from Public Schools.

The following brief report of the Education Commission indicates the keen and critical spirit in which the students are facing the problems of the present day.

'We believe that our answer to Fascism lies in education for Democracy', said Miss Mabel Cheetham, Chairman of the N.U.S. Education Committee, reporting on the work of her Commission. 'We must give our children the chance of knowing other peoples; we must teach them to think so that they can come to their own conclusions as capable, critical human beings.

'As for the teachers, we want a new type of teacher in our schools to-day—very different from most of the old type. The new teacher must have a real understanding of the problems of contemporary society, national and international, so that she can pass on that understanding to the children.

'In many of the Teachers' Training Colleges to-day we have examples of Fascism at work in the stringent restrictions and the limitation of discussion. It is our job to try and make the Training Colleges better suited to playing their part in the answer to Fascism.'

The Commission passed two resolutions:

'We, as education students, realizing the fundamental importance of the teacher in a progressive democratic education system, strongly deprecate the omission of any representative of a training college from the new national committee for investigation of the training of teachers, and press that this situation should be immediately rectified.'

'This meeting of the Education Commission of the N.U.S. Congress believes that by training to become teachers, education students are undertaking an important war service. We are convinced therefore that our contribution to the fight against fascism must be to get the best training possible, including a maximum amount of international understanding. We are aware that this involves considerable reforms in our colleges and the curricula, and will work for this. We believe also that since education can make a most

vital contribution to the building of democracy we must study the sociological aspects of education so that we can advocate and work not only for progressive methods of teaching but for those administrative reforms outlined in last year's congress resolution, which are so urgently necessary. Finally, we feel that during the present period of training we have a special responsibility of undertaking war work particularly in educational spheres—army education, youth clubs, play centres, nurseries, etc., for which we will be of most use because of our special qualifications.'

Two other documents show the attitude of the Students. The first is their message to the Students of the World. This reads as follows: 'We, 1,500 students assembled in the Annual Congress of the National Union of Students, send our greetings to the freedom-loving youth and students of the world.

'We express our profound determination to work with all our strength and without pause for the defeat of Fascism, for the building of a new and peaceful world and for the maintaining of the finest traditions of student internationalism.

'Convinced that Fascism is the implacable enemy of all progressive hopes and ideals we call upon you one and all to join with us and our allies to play your full part in its final destruction.

'Students of the United Nations, we salute and greet you. A unity is being formed among us which nothing can shake. We shall go forward, in common sympathy and understanding, to victory. To America and China, to India and the Dominions, we send this message: Your work helps and encourages us in a thousand ways, and we know that we have many lessons to learn from your experience. To our allies, the youth of the Soviet Union, who have borne this year the brunt of our common struggle, we say: You have given to us new standards of heroism and determination; the ties which bind us to you shall never be loosened.

'South American students, we appreciate your ever-increasing unity with our cause. We know that you too, will play your part in this world struggle.

'Students of the occupied countries, we have watched with pride

and emotion the struggle which you are carrying on, under conditions of intolerable hardship, against the Fascist oppressors. We understand your sacrifices, we pledge our aid. Carry on.

'Finally, to the youth of the countries with which we are at war, especially the German youth, we say in all sincerity: We are determined to stamp out Fascism which has brought untold suffering and degradation to the world, but for you we have no hatred, no bitterness. We know that it is for you too that we are fighting and that there are many among you already active in the cause of freedom. We recognize your right—Fascism once destroyed—to an honourable place in the free world of the future. We call upon you all to join with us in overthrowing this monstrous Fascist system which can bring nothing but misery and war.

'Students of the world, the times ahead are full of trials and difficulties, but ours is a hope and confidence which nothing can extinguish. We shall never be shaken from our resolve to build a world based on international friendship. Fascism must be destroyed. We pledge ourselves for our part to work and serve and sacrifice to make this year of 1942 a year of victory.'

The second is the Congress general resolution, passed by 1,154 votes for, with 9 against and 35 abstentions. It reads:

'We, 1,500 students, coming together in the third year of war in the Annual Congress of the National Union of Students, recognize that we meet at a moment of grave crisis in the destiny of all the world—a crisis in which we cannot for a moment, as students and citizens, be neutral. In the struggle between Fascism which we have seen to be the implacable enemy of all true liberty, religion, education and social progress. In every sphere and in all its manifestations, not least in its effects on education, we recognize Fascism to be retrogressive, barbarous and evil. Our opinions and faiths—religious, political and cultural—vary. But we are united in our resolve to play our full part as individuals and members of the international student community in answering the Fascist threat. Recognizing that our immediate contribution to this answer must

be in the winning of the war we pledge our unstinting service in the war effort of the country. We believe that the universities and colleges by training responsible and competent citizens, can contribute immensely to that effort, and that students, by hard work, specialized study, discussion of the issues at stake, and participation in war service of every kind, have a clear part to play. We are convinced that it is necessary to intensify every sphere of the war effort and believe that to this end the fullest democracy and freedom of the Press are essential. We state emphatically our determination to work, train and sacrifice to the utmost so that this year, 1942, may be made a decisive year for victory.

'We recognize too that our aims and duties do not end with the war. It is our task, in firm friendship with the freedom-loving students of all countries, to find with the rest of our generation an answer to Fascism which will be the foundation of a more just and peaceful world. It is necessary to begin now to build that foundation. We reject utterly all theories and actions of race hatred and are convinced that in the occupied countries and in Germany itself we have allies whose heroism and sacrifice show their resolve to join with us in the final destruction of Fascism. We believe that the surest answer to the Fascist challenge lies in the building of a society which is free from all forms of subjugation and is based on a vital democracy and an economic system in which the resources of the world are used to the full for the benefit of all. Such a society will give to all people equality of opportunity and the chance to live a life in the service of the highest ideals and the brotherhood of man.

'As students, while facing our responsibilities as ordinary citizens of a changing world, we have the important duty of maintaining at all times our universities and colleges and those principles of free learning and expression for which we stand. By building up our student organizations, by maintaining perpetual vigilance on behalf of our democratic traditions and by seeking every means in our power to make our educational system as effective and satisfactory as possible, we shall be helping in

our own sphere not merely to put our universities and colleges to the fullest service of the community but to find a lasting answer to Fascism and all it represents.'

(1) There are rumours of comings and goings, conferences and consultations, offers and *Random Jottings* threats, over the proposed new Education Bill. It is strange (or isn't it?) that the *People's* education should arouse so much activity, *behind* the scenes. Does this explain the sense of frustration so frequently to be found in the 'audience'?

(2) I have met an Indian student who is writing a thesis upon 'The Repercussions of the War on English Education'. Is any official record of a vast socio-educational experiment being made?

(3) The students of education now in the Training Colleges and University Training Departments show increasing interest in the wider aspects of education and in its purpose in the community. Can we help to build up an organization which will keep this attitude alive when they take their places in the Schools. They will need all the help that can be given to them.

(4) I have seen a Report on X written just over forty years ago. It states 'We believe that this boy does intelligent work but no one has been able to decipher what he writes.' And I have seen a Report on the son of X written two years ago, which states, 'His work may be intelligent but his writing is completely illegible.' What does this prove:

(a) That all teachers have faith in the intelligence of their pupils, *or*

(b) That bad writing is hereditary, *or*

(c) That the 'patterns of thought' of the average common room are persistent and traditional?

(5) A boy aged 10 was a candidate at one of the annual transfer examinations. One sum read 'How many times can you take 4 from 97?' The lad put down a row of 97's and under them a row of 4's and then a row of 93's. Underneath he wrote 'I can do this just as many times as you like.' Should he be transferred to academic or practical post-primary education?

(6) In a Youth Club the ex-Secondary scholars attacked *their*

education because it had been so dependent upon the requirements of certain examinations. The ex-Elementary scholars criticized their's because they had had no chance of passing examinations and so qualifying for better posts. What is the solution?

There is need for still more groups. The Fellowship cannot provide its most valuable service until it can give to every member that active Fellowship in a great cause which is one of the great joys of life. It will be a great day when the Fellowship can hold regional Conferences in, say, the South West, the South East, the Midlands, the North East, and the North West, in addition to its general Annual Conference. This is not a desire just to increase our numbers. It is the only way in which we can show that we believe in our cause and are also good democrats. For we must share our good things and bring them to all others. We have a duty to the whole community from which we cannot escape and from which, I am sure, we have no desire to escape.

Books Across the Sea is an Anglo-American society of people interested in books. *Books Across The Sea* Mrs. Beatrice Warde as a result of the work of the American Outpost, with which it is affiliated. It has organized a scheme for the exchange of scrap-books between groups in this country and similar groups in America: these include both adult and children's groups, but, of course, the major response has been from schools. It is endeavouring to arrange that there shall be economic and geographical similarity in the circumstances of the corresponding groups so far as possible. Anyone interested should write to Mrs. G. M. Place, Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., Parker Street, Kingsway, London, W.C.2, sending some short notes on the type of group they would form.

In order to save shipping space and postage, material is generally sent loose in envelopes, to be mounted by the receivers. Cuttings, photographs, stamps, and so on, are grouped according to the phase of daily life that they illuminate, and there have arisen endless varieties of ingenious and interesting groupings.

The object is that these scrap-books should help those on both sides of the Atlantic to understand what their daily lives would be like had they been born on the other side; it seems that such real knowledge of other people, those just like ourselves, but living in other countries, is an essential ingredient in the development of a world society.

This is a story for those who are tempted to believe that they are lacking in either ability or opportunity to participate actively in our work.

Arthur and Mary were ensconced on a suitably placed seat in a Park. For a time there was silence, and then Arthur sighed: 'I wish I were an octopus'. 'Whatever for', said Mary. 'Because I should then have eight arms to hold you with', replied her companion. There was again a lengthy silence, broken at last by Mary, 'Why don't you use the two you have?'

We are not all Octopi, nor is wishing we were an effective approach to our problems. But we all have 'two arms' and can use them effectively.

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Recent Books

1. **Education for a New Society**, Ernest Green. (G. Routledge & Sons, Ltd. 5/-.)
2. **Discussing Education**, Richard Wilson. *Discussion Books*, No. 78. (T. Nelson & Sons, Ltd. 2/6.)

By what criteria should a volume on Education be judged under existing circumstances? The question is both easy and difficult to answer. It is easy because it is obvious that any worthwhile book on such a topic must, at the moment, analyse the function of education in modern society and deal constructively with the reorganization and reconstruction necessary in order to make the educational service of the community an effective instrument in the achievement of its purpose. But this is not enough, for education can be used in the service of a narrow, evil, sectional interest, as is painfully evident to-day. Because of this the question posed is a difficult one to answer. For any book must look down the forward slope from the ridge which has been climbed and try to glimpse, however faintly, some of the main features of the as yet unexplored lands, and to chart, in what is bound to be only an approximate manner the main paths that lead to its cities. In other

words, the task calls for knowledge both of society and of education, the power of critical judgment, and also that of controlled imagination. It is perhaps too much to expect the perfect book at this stage but any book can be evaluated only by the degree to which it meets these needs of the moment. There is a further point to which insufficient consideration has been given. The wartime reader is different from the reader of peacetime days. He is usually tired with long hours of work and a multitude of additional duties. He is anxious as well and subjected to tension. Therefore, any book which is to be worth while must be stimulating and be shot through with suggestive illustrations and ideas.

Here then are the criteria by which a book of to-day—and particularly any book which has for its purpose the stimulation of discussion, must fulfil. It must be dynamic—for the world has left its base camps and is on the march. It must be imaginative, giving readers a vision of the new lands awaiting their arrival. It must be so fired with enthusiasm that it has power to urge forward the anxious and the weary. A book which would be acclaimed as excellent in more peaceful and settled times might now have to be written down a failure.

The first of these books, *Education for a New Society*, is by the General Secretary of the Workers' Educational Association. His long experience of all forms of education, and particularly in the sphere of adult education, are qualifications for his task and ensure that he will bring to it, knowledge gained in many fields. His book is 'dedicated to the ordinary man' and is intended to show him that 'modern education offers scope for the most exciting adventure and promises the greatest social gain for the effort and expenditure involved'.

The volume divides into two parts, the first of which deals in successive chapters with the History of the Education System in England, the existing provision, Health and Welfare work in the Schools; while three further chapters deal with the future of education. The historical part is well done. It is carefully documented and gives the facts, supported by a number of apt and telling quotations. Some would find too much emphasis on the power of education over society and not enough on the power of society over education. Does education influence the economic life of the community? Is it not a fact that this economic life determines the kind of education provided? There is a tendency to blame 'powerful interests

inside and outside Parliament' and not either society as a whole or Parliament. It is indeed an illuminating commentary upon the progress we have made (or not made) towards social democracy to learn that the desires of Parliament can be frustrated by 'powerful interests' *outside* it.

The proposals for reform which Mr. Green puts forward should be carefully considered. They include a reformed code, the raising of the leaving-age to 16 by two stages, continued part-time education up to 18 in day continuation schools, the provision of junior colleges organising short courses for young workers, more nursery-school or -class provision, the abolition of secondary school fees, a settlement of the question of dual control, integration of the Public Schools within the National system and a careful scrutiny of the Private School system. The pages devoted to the Universities make interesting reading, and not everyone would agree with the views put forward.

This book could be given high marks in the light of the criteria listed above. It is an excellent survey of the field and it is significant that the General Secretary of the W.E.A., an organization which has fought many battles for education in the past, is now organizing his forces for further progress.

Dr. Wilson writes his book in order to 'enlist the interests of the general public'. It consists of a number of topics for discussion, varying from Publishers to Universities, Religious Instruction to the Frustration of Science. Many of the chapters are most stimulating and will serve their purpose admirably. But it is to be hoped that at the discussions someone with sociological knowledge will be present. Although it is true that the influence of Universities can be traced throughout the educational system, it is equally true that this is so because of certain social values and traditions. It is strange, too, to find Shakespeare quoted in support of a theory of the inheritance of ability to read. One might equally well quote the author of Genesis in support of the origin of women. Some other statements are equally questionable. Why is the raising of the school-leaving age a 'glib' solution; it is true to say that 'large sums of public money' are spent on education compared with the amounts spent on other services? When to this is added 'by far the greater amount is spent in continuous efforts at reorganization and in administration' the statement is inaccurate. Dr. Wilson should consult List 43 published by the Board of Education, and he would there find comparative figures of expenditure on various branches of the educational service. Equally inaccurate is it to state that it is the official regimenta-

tion which destroys initiative in teachers. Admittedly, this is one factor. But a Polish educator of experience, who is with me as I write this, is more alarmed at the refusal of teachers to use the freedom they have.

Perhaps these comments serve to indicate that the book fulfils its purpose in so far as it will stimulate discussion. It will certainly achieve this end where groups have some concrete experience of the provision of education in this country. Otherwise, statements may be accepted as expressing the facts when they only express opinions.

Dr. Wilson's proposals for reform are interesting and very provocative. They suggest a wide extension of Adult Education (including residential colleges—but why 'approved'—and by whom?), 'ample' financial assistance to clubs, brigades, etc.; improved teacher training, including the establishment of new colleges for training Youth Leaders and Teachers of adolescents and adults. The only suggestion about the school-leaving age is its possible 'bold reduction' to 13!

Is this the way to that new order of society for which we fight and sacrifice and die? It is to be hoped that the discussions based upon this book will give a very decided answer to that question. *H. G. Stead*

Education : A Plan for the Future. *Published on behalf of The Association of Directors and Secretaries of Education. (1942. Oxford University Press. 6d.)*

The position and influence of the sponsors of this pamphlet, if not the uniqueness of the proposals it contains, must ensure that it is read by everyone interested in the post-war reconstruction of education. In the explanatory note its authors wisely claim that it is 'merely an indication of certain lines of policy to be followed in adapting and expanding the educational system to meet post-war needs'; that they 'can only anticipate vaguely the shape of things to come and, therefore, cannot predict with any certainty what our post-war needs will be'; moreover they go on to speak of the 'confusion which must inevitably follow the war'. It seems fairly certain that if we can only approach our post-war problems in this tentative spirit then intelligent planning cannot replace makeshift expedients, and the muddle of the last post-war period must be the lot of yet another generation.

In spite of the emphasis placed upon the need for equality of educational opportunity; the full development of individual capacities and potentialities; and the contribution of the educational service to the general development of community life; it is, perhaps, in its conception of the relation of education to society that the pamphlet seems at

its weakest. It supports unequivocally many of the educational desiderata which have been previously urged by progressive educationists; establishes the need for an overhaul of those parts of the administrative and legislative machine which stand in the way of reform; and deals discreetly with the problem of dual control and denominational instruction. It emphasises the need for parity of conditions for all children in the post-primary stage; advocates a considerable extension of medical supervision; and urges an increase in facilities for further education and in the power and prestige of the Board of Education; suggests 'an unprecedented extension of full-time art and technological courses', and the institution of the Day Continuation School as the 'corner-stone of any provision made for adolescents in employment'.

Yet, in spite of the many excellent things it advocates, the breath of life has not been breathed upon the dry bones. One turns the last page with a strange sense of unreality, and wonders why. Is it because administrators must, of necessity, make dull crusaders, or is there still the 'one thing lacking' which might have turned a catalogue of administrative changes into a dynamic social and educational gospel? Perhaps the explanatory note, mentioned at the beginning of this review, together with the principles summarized on page 10 of the pamphlet, provide the clue to the answer. Can the school community exist apart from the wider community, and maintain its values in splendid isolation? Can you require in the name of ideal religious education 'that each school shall be a Christian community manifesting in all its activities the Christian way of life'? can you really ensure the continuance of democratic principles by 'the complete training of every individual to self-sacrificing and efficient service' when the world outside the school is run on competitive lines for private profit? The reader must buy the pamphlet, read it carefully, ponder over its implications, and decide for himself.

David Jordan

Language in School, M. M. Lewis. *(University of London Press. 6/-.)*

It is twenty years since Mr. George Sampson wittily criticized the traditional methods of teaching English and insisted that every teacher in English is a teacher of English. English teaching in the schools has indeed changed greatly in these twenty years but it has hardly kept pace with the general expansion of education services, the revolution in our methods of communication brought about by telephone, radio and talking film, and recent research and speculation on linguistic problems. Mr. Lewis gives a timely restatement of the language situation as it affects teachers to-day.

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It is not simply a question of greater skill in using words, more fluency and correctness, the appreciation of literature and the devising of exercises to achieve these ends. 'The aims of education in language can only be based upon an awareness of the functions of language', and his book is written to give teachers this awareness of language as a system of symbols by which a speaker brings a listener into co-operation with him. Language is of all men's behaviour the most highly socialized, and through it a man's thoughts and attitudes take the impress of society past and present. The two principles which should guide the teacher are—'one, that the growth of skill in language depends not so much upon set lessons as upon the community of speech in which the child lives: secondly, that he will progress in speech only if he finds that this really provides a means by which he can satisfy his main needs.'

The first part of the book deals with the application of these principles to the uses of language in everyday life—reading, writing, listening and speaking in relation to the business of earning a living and of living with others. In the second part Mr. Lewis analyses the higher uses of language as in science and poetry—when language is so used that its effects pass beyond the limits of ordinary daily life. In the chapters on the aesthetic and scientific intention the keen teacher will find much useful material and stimulating suggestion, while in the last chapter on Language in the Classroom he will find a discussion of problems to which far too little attention has been given in the past. Learning by doing has been a sound corrective of the teacher's tendency to verbalize education; but when all has been done that can be, language is

still a fundamental and indispensable medium of education. The rôle of the school is to transform the child's mother tongue into the language of education; the process is beset with difficulties and misunderstandings. Fundamentally, success will depend on the extent to which the activities of the school and what it stands for become as real and vital to the child as the activities of its out-of-school world. This function of the school is widely recognized to-day but its implications for our use of language in the classroom have certainly not been fully realized or worked out in practice. This is a task which each teacher, in whatever subject, should do for himself; he will be greatly helped in the doing of it by this sensible and stimulating book.

J. W. Tibble

**Testing Results in the Infant
School, by D. E. M. Gardner.**
(Methuen. 6/6.)

Miss Gardner has given years of devoted service to the cause of education, but this record of a patient, systematic investigation, thoughtfully devised and carefully carried through, is, in my opinion, her most far-reaching and important contribution.

Miss Gardner set out to compare the achievements of children who are allowed to move and talk and play together in schools ('A' schools or experimental) with those who are mostly made to sit still and listen ('B' schools or control). There are no ready-made tests for assessing this sort of result. Material had to be selected from various sources or devised by Miss Gardner herself. Then a reliable method of comparison had to be used. The results obtained by two educational methods were studied with children from both 'A' and 'B' schools who had the same range of intelligence, similar homes, and social backgrounds. This in itself needed careful testing and investigation.

When suitable tests had been selected, modified, or devised, they were tried out in one year, then corrected, discarded, or accepted before the final testing a year later. Great care was devoted to the preparation of testing conditions, and Dr. Susan Isaacs, in her Foreword, emphasizes that the facts were gathered under objective conditions 'and with all the proper safeguards of a sound technique of testing and of evaluating data'. Observers and testers were selected for their skill, their impartiality and their familiarity with children.

The tests covered almost every aspect of life in an infant school. Some were for assessing difference of degree of concentration, others for the power of close listening and carrying out directions, others were concerned with tidiness, or with social reactions, ingenuity, and inventiveness; crea-

tive imagination. There were also tests in arithmetic, reading, writing, composition, and physical training.

The results are dramatic. Many of us know from experience that children allowed to be active and friendly and free to inquire and experiment will prove more resourceful and co-operative than others. But, as Dr. Isaacs writes, 'no one could say how much more'. Miss Gardner herself sounds surprised as result after result works out in favour of the experimental schools and with no slight margin. The successes of the 'A' group of schools might tend to monotony, but that the control group scores higher here and there, e.g. for 'unquestioning obedience' in following given rules in a game (the experimental groups tended to *change* the rules) and in speed and neatness of writing at the age of six (but not at seven).

These results, so clearly stated and attested, are a challenge to all administrators and teachers in infant and junior schools, Kindergartens and Preparatory schools. All but the die-hards among us will be moved in one way or another as we read the book. Let us hope that many will be moved to action. Some will go on with renewed vision and faith, others will be pacified and encouraged to unloose the formalities of the traditional classroom and to reject old wasteful methods. We hope many will begin to feel uneasy! Whatever the reaction, there is no doubt that teachers will be deeply grateful for the investigation and for Miss Gardner's straightforward clear account of its various aspects. As she suggests, this is but a beginning and points the way to fuller and more complete enquiries along similar lines, leading eventually to a deeper knowledge of the right way to educate our children.

E. R. Boyce

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Backwardness in the Basic Subjects. Fred. J. Schonell.
(Oliver & Boyd. 1942. 559 pp. 18/-.)

A brief review cannot hope to do justice to a book which is based upon eight years research in both primary and post-primary schools and which deals with one of the most difficult problems for both the headmaster and class teacher, namely, how to deal adequately with children who are not innately dull, yet who have specific difficulties in reading, writing, or spelling. Dr. Schonell is not unaware of the dangers of too mechanical a treatment of backwardness, and sounds a timely warning to teachers who look for rule of thumb methods with which to solve the scholastic problems which face them. Following the method of attack indicated in his earlier work on 'The Diagnosis of Individual Difficulties in Arithmetic', he insists that the problem is an individual one, and that 'physical conditions, intellectual abilities, emotional attitudes, and environmental influences' all play their part in the development of a sound and balanced personality.

Set in the proper background of the psychology of individual differences he gives us a well-documented study of methods for diagnosing the causes of specific backwardness, rightly insisting that where there is no specific intellectual deficiency accurate diagnosis is an essential pre-requisite for successful treatment. Even here, however, he gives evidence of his balanced outlook. 'Carefully constructed diagnostic tests are certainly one of the most useful items in a diagnostic programme, but they do not solve the problem; they indicate the nature of the difficulties in a particular subject, but tell us insufficient about causation and, what is more important, about treatment.' His enquiries therefore embraced, in addition to tests of general intelligence and scholastic attainment, sensory tests and an enquiry into emotional characteristics, interests, and personal history, which involved an estimate of the harmony of the home, the child's attitude to teachers and school, and similar conditioning factors.

As a result of his careful research, coupled with a wide acquaintance with other researches of a similar character, Dr. Schonell has written a guide to remedial teaching in reading, spelling, and the writing of composition which will be a standard work for some years. It must find a place on the shelf of every teacher, for its method of approach must increasingly supersede the outworn notions which are relics of the mass teaching of earlier days.

Pioneer work in special schools has shown that children with a very low I.Q. on a verbal type of intelligence test can achieve a satisfactory and

satisfying standard of work when taught by concrete rather than by abstract methods, and make rapid progress when teaching methods are adapted to their individual needs. By the use of Dr. Schonell's techniques we may do as much for the almost neglected class of specifically backward children whose needs are as great, if not as obtrusive. For their adequate introduction, however, we shall need more elasticity in staffing ratios, greater recognition of the educational problems of individual schools on the part of administrators, and of individual scholars on the part of teachers.

David Jordan

Speech Rhymes, Clive Sansom.
Books 1 & 2. (A. & C. Black, Ltd. 1/- each.)

These books are of rather unusual interest. How many of us would have thought before looking inside their covers that there were still so many racy old folk rhymes to be found outside the pages of *Mother Goose*, or so many rhymes of later periods unknown to most of us until now. Some of the modern and most amusing have been written by the editor himself and these, soundly built on the old tradition, serve a valuable purpose in giving the children themes which belong to their present environment.

Some wise and sound advice on matters of speech is given in the Teacher's Notes at the end of each book. These notes and the actual comments upon the verses themselves show a real understanding of the child's needs and of modern educational methods.

The books are in good clear print and on excellent paper, the rhymes are well spaced and the illustrations are simple and artistic. *Speech Rhymes* will make a valuable contribution to Junior School work.

Marjorie Gullan

The Prussian Spirit, by S. D. Stirk. (Faber & Faber, 12/6.)

War-time writings on the problem of Germany range from serious studies to political baby-talk, the latter giving a comforting answer to the question 'Which are the good men, mummy, and which are the bad men?'

The problem, as difficult as it is urgent, is a complex of problems, some of them specially German, others common to all the more advanced countries. Ever since Hitler came to power, observers who had the wit to see that a major menace had arisen have picked out 'Prussianism' as one of the problems. Edgar Mowrer's *Germany Puts the Clock Back* (1933)—one of the earliest warnings—had a chapter entitled 'Back to Prussianism'. The Nazis exploited elements in the Prussian tradition, just as they exploited anti-semitism, anti-bolshev-

ism, anti-capitalism, anti-clericalism, anti-feminism, and other existing trends.

Mr. Stirk concentrates on the one problem of the 'Prussian Spirit'. His book is serious and commendably free from emotional outbursts, but it has nothing very new to say. Readers who have given a good deal of study to Germany will find his sketches of the works of a number of writers before and after 1933 useful. For other readers the book may, I fear, prove confusing and perhaps misleading. I would make these main criticisms:

The book is not what its sub-title claims it to be—'A Survey of German Literature and Politics, 1914-1940'. The literature reviewed is a small and specialised selection and there is nothing like a systematic survey of the politics of the period.

Mr. Stirk does not succeed in disentangling: (1) Prussia and its part in German history, (2) the National Socialist movement, its brutalities and lunacies, (3) those human characteristics frequently labelled 'Prussian' but by no means confined to Prussians or even Germans—arrogance, aggressiveness, the typical military virtues and vices, submissiveness to the State, a puritanically narrow and rigid conception of duty.

Mr. Stirk misses the opportunity of doing a job that is vitally important. It is not much use describing once again the unpleasant characteristics to be found in Germans. What is needed is an investigation of the sociological and educational determinants which have fostered the development of these characteristics.

V.O.

Children in Soviet Russia, by Deana Levin. (Faber & Faber. 6/-.)

Miss Levin's book on the education of children in the Soviet Union is of great interest particularly to those of us in England who are faced with problems in education which the war has brought to light and increased. Perhaps the Soviet Union's greatest achievement in education is the excellent co-operation which exists among the parents, the schools, and the children's associations. The burden of maintaining that co-operation appears to lie very largely in the hands of the teachers at the present time, and while one feels that it is worth while, at the same time one wonders how heavy that burden is and how much time teachers have for interests not directly concerned with the children after teaching, visiting homes, taking turns to be at camp, attending children's and teachers' meetings.

Other points which are extremely interesting are the teachers' meetings in which questions of discipline and staff difficulties are frankly discussed, and I can imagine nothing that could be more helpful to a young teacher

than a friendly meeting such as is described here, rather than the lonely and terrifying experience of a first year of teaching when it seems necessary to cover up mistakes from official eyes. The class system and strict adherence to a set syllabus for everyone may be a subject for criticism, but the book as a whole paints an interesting and animated picture of children's life in the Soviet Union. The amount of discussion and criticism that goes on according to Miss Levin makes one think that at least ideas there are not static but constantly changing and progressing.

A. Croasdell

N.E.F. International Headquarters

50 Gloucester Place, London, W.1

The International Discussions on Education will be continued in July as follows:

Friday, July 3rd—**English Schools Through Polish Eyes** (Mr. B. S. Drzewieski, formerly N.E.F. Secretary in Poland). July 10th—**Painting and Emotional Development** (Miss Nan Youngman, Art Teacher, Highbury Hill High School). July 17th—**The**

Changing Emphasis from Education for Personality to Education for Citizenship (Mr. W. B. Curry, Headmaster, Dartington Hall School, Totnes). July 24th—**National Culture in Education** (Dr. Helle Lambrides, Greece). At 6 p.m. (except on July 17th, which will start at 5.30 p.m.) at Friends International Centre, 37 Gordon Square, W.C.1. Open to anyone interested.

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PRICE 1/-

SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER 1942

Volume 23, Number 7

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The Plan of a Conference

THE ferment which is moving in society is at work too in the educational sphere, where its visible signs have been the holding of an unprecedented number of meetings and conferences and the issuing of recommendations for a reconstructed system of education by many political and educational bodies.

There was evidently need for some organization to undertake the task of examining these recommendations and considering what measure of agreement there was amongst them and what proposals could be made covering the whole field. This task was one to which the English New Education Fellowship could properly direct its effort, and one which it was peculiarly

fitted to undertake in view of its interest in the whole field of education and its varied membership.

All available reports were therefore collected and the recommendations made in them were summarized. It became clear that, broadly speaking, the whole field could be divided into areas dealing with each of the following: the pre-school child, the primary school child, the post-primary school child, the young person, the adult. It was realized that there was no clear cut division between these, but that one merged into the next and that there was organic unity throughout them all. But some such division had to be made in order to facilitate and focus discussion.

Therefore six commissions were

set up covering each of the areas mentioned above, plus a separate commission on Administration. The findings of the first three are published below; the rest will follow in the next issue of *The New Era*.

The reports which follow are offered as a contribution to the major task of educationists in a period of crisis, which is to survey the field fully and purposively in order that effective action may result. To talk and not to act is to be worse than useless in present circumstances, for it raises hopes which are not fulfilled and hence gives rise to a sense of frustration and defeat. The demand of the hour is for critical thought and constructive action. H. G. S.

The Pre-School Child

Chairman : Dr. A. Noll

Secretary : Miss Mair Gore

Association for Planning and Regional Reconstruction

Goldsmiths College

THE final report of this Commission was prefaced by a short summary from the Chairman stressing the importance of the 'healthy family' in its widest sense:

'It was agreed that the healthy family in an ordered home as the natural means of securing the all-round development of the young child is of the greatest importance in all plans for education. This means that the family must have economic security and must be educated to give the child every opportunity to develop as a physically, mentally and emotionally healthy individual. Such health is necessary if he is to benefit fully from education.

'It is quite obvious that the

development of education and health can no longer be separated from each other: one service cannot achieve maximum results without the collaboration of the other.

'At the present time, in the case of an unsuitable home, the responsibility for the child is taken away from the family and shared by the educational and health services. This cannot and must not be the permanent solution of the problem. The family must be educated: it is the natural environment of the child and must be enabled to function as such.

'Parents, teachers, educationists and health workers combined as a team ought to be in charge of the

care of the growing child. He must be considered in relation to his environment, and then only can health and education be developed to his full benefit.

'The integration and education of the family can only be achieved by means of a long-term policy. The same applies to the distribution of family health centres.¹

'The immediate needs of child care can be met by improvement and extension of existing services as shown in the following suggestions from the commission.'

¹ The long-term policy visualizes health centres in the form of the Peckham Health Centre. The short-term policy wishes to make use of health centres as they are suggested in the Interim Report of the Medical Planning Commission (*Brit. Med. Journal*, June 20th, 1942).

Needs of the Child at the Pre-School Stage

The commission wishes to state very clearly that it desires to see opportunities for the fullest development of all aspects of growth, physical, mental, emotional and social provided for the child of this age. Recognizing the necessary unity of all these within the child, it does not wish to lay particular stress on any one side but on the whole organism and its functioning within its environment.

(i) Balanced development at this stage is fundamentally important as a basis for further education.

(ii) Hitherto purely physical development has been stressed. In the light of modern knowledge of psychology and biology it is clear that more attention must be paid to mental and emotional growth, in order to educate integrated individuals. It is strongly felt that the future nursery nurse must also be an educationist and that the trained teacher must have more knowledge of health.

(iii) Relationship between the child and his mother is of paramount importance. Under two years he is in no sense a social being

and cannot benefit from being with numbers of children; therefore a good home is his best environment.

Provision of Family Health Centres

(i) All services relating to the health of children and their parents should be co-ordinated in the Health Centre. Ante- and post-natal clinics, child welfare and guidance clinics, doctors and health visitors should work together, making possible a continuity of health service for each individual in his family-environment.

(ii) Sufficient centres which are convenient, attractive and well staffed should be provided so that the physical, mental and emotional health of the whole family can be supervised.

(iii) Regular medical overhauls of the whole family should take place at the Health Centre.

(iv) Close collaboration should be maintained with the school as well as with the family.

It was felt that the response of the public would depend upon the quality of the centres: propaganda was considered of vital importance, but compulsion was not recommended.

Care of the Mother, Anti- and Post-Natal Work

Ante-natal work organized within the family health centre should aim at developing positive health by education. At present, owing to shortage of clinics, it is only possible to avoid pathological disaster.

(i) Personal contact with the doctor must provide for the psychological as well as the physical needs of the expectant mother.

(ii) Efficient organization is essential, and set appointments are recommended rather than long waits.

(iii) Opportunity should be provided for consultation with the husband as well as the wife.

(iv) Education on broad questions such as the health of the expected child, the understanding of parenthood might be provided by means of lectures, and by means of individual family-consultations.

Post-natal work must be greatly increased and more trained health visitors provided. Provision should be made for mobile clinics which would meet the needs of mothers in rural areas or where the distribution of permanent centres is inadequate.

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PARKSIDE WORKS

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Education for Parenthood

(i) This should begin at school with nature study, leading on to biology and a clear understanding of sex hygiene.

(ii) Instruction in child care and management should form part of the curriculum in the later school years and should be included in post-school education.

(iii) Education for parenthood should be continued in the health centres in the form of family consultations with the doctors and general lectures.

(iv) The Parent Association of the Nursery School is a factor in this education.

(v) The education provided must improve the understanding of the implications of parenthood, induce intelligent attitudes to birth control, and lay the foundations for the healthy upbringing of the child.

Provision of Schools for Children up to 7 years

(i) The present nursery schools, nursery classes, and infant schools to be absorbed into Nursery Schools including the ages from 2-7 years.

(ii) These schools to be situated

near the Health Centre, so that the necessary collaboration between family school and health services can be maintained; also that emergencies, such as outbreaks of infectious disease or accidents, can be adequately dealt with.

(iii) Grouping and Staffing:

(a) It was strongly felt that teachers, nurses and helpers must be trained in accordance with the recommendations set down under 'Training of Workers in this Field'.

(b) Groups of children must be kept small. Fifteen children under five in the charge of one teacher and two helpers, and twenty children over five in the charge of one teacher and one helper were thought necessary.

(iv) Promotion from one group to another must depend on the maturational level of the child and not solely on chronological age.

(v) The transition from the Nursery School to the next department must be made as smooth as possible, by interchange of staff and close collaboration between the departments.

No agreement was reached on

part-time and whole-time attendance and where compulsion should begin, but it was felt that a ruling should be made enabling parents, teachers and health workers to make the decision together in individual cases.

Provision of Day Nurseries

It was considered necessary to provide day nurseries catering for children from birth onwards where the home was not suitable for various reasons, e.g. both parents in full-time employment, family too small, family socially disordered.

(i) These should be situated where the need is greatest, in blocks of flats, or near the Nursery School and Health Centre.

(ii) Grouping and Staffing:

(a) Small groups are desirable: one trained adult in charge of four babies or five children from one to two years old.

(b) There should be two trained people in charge.

(c) Adequate domestic staff must be provided; one person to each group of four or five children.

(d) Student nurses in training should act as helpers, and

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The sixth form provides an opportunity for pupils to look back and above all to look forward, to develop some kind of philosophy or at least to get some acquaintance with those broad facts of human experience out of which can grow a philosophy of life. As the Spens 1939 Report suggested : (*The sixth form*) *acts as a perpetual stimulus to the work of both teachers and pupils, providing them with a new and wider horizon.*

Teachers of sixth forms, faced with the responsibility of providing pupils with this new and wider horizon, may be interested to see how one of their number attempted to solve the same problem. B. A. Howard, Headmaster of the Addey and Stanhope Secondary School, shared with his sixth form a year of weekly lecture-discussions. Out of these discussions grew 'The Proper Study of Mankind', a book planned to provide a jumping-off place for other sixth form discussions and a basis for reading and enquiry of all kinds.

No summary can convey the quality of the book, and it is hoped that anyone interested will write for a copy on approval, but a short statement of its plan may be useful. It falls into two parts, the first giving an account of Man as an evolving being, with an indication of how his body, his mind, his religion and his society have developed through the ages. The later chapters attempt to suggest an attitude of mind in which modern men and women may most hopefully set out to solve the problems of their society.

Teachers are invited to send to the publishers for a loan copy of the book and a free copy of the author's 'Notes for Teachers' using it.

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School Address.....

two student nurses should be counted as equal to one trained person for purposes of staffing.

Provision of Residential Nurseries

Residential nurseries were considered necessary for children whose homes were broken up by disaster.

The home character must be preserved by arranging the children in small groups, *e.g.* four children, who meet in larger groups for games and occupations.

Sufficient staff must be provided to enable all adults to have adequate free time, thus maintaining an atmosphere without strain and tension.

Use should be made of student nurses, in charge of a well-trained matron or superintendent.

Children should not be transferred from these residential nurseries to residential schools before they are five years old.

Health and Nutrition of Children

This will be maintained by:

(i) Parent Education beginning in school and continuing in part-time education, through the Health

Centre and the Parent Association of the Nursery School.

(ii) The work of the Health Centre in close collaboration with the parents and with the school.

(iii) The best possible school buildings and service providing space, fresh air, good heating, suitable sleeping accommodation and hygienic sanitary arrangements.

(iv) The provision of a well-balanced school meal planned by a dietician.

(v) Teachers with sounder knowledge of hygiene and health.

(vi) Regular medical overhauls of the whole family at the Health Centre.

(vii) Extension of health insurance to all members of the family.

The Training of Workers in this Field

General

Throughout school life there should be adequate preparation for the right attitudes to health and child care.

Nurses and Teachers

No agreement was reached on

the length and curriculum of the training, but it was felt that both nurses' and teachers' trainings must be modified in order to develop the necessary all-round approach to, and understanding of, the physical, mental and emotional needs of the child.

Helpers

Helpers must have a recognized course with a diploma, giving them a definite status and salary. This training should follow on the general training at school and should take place while they are working in nurseries.

Sufficient time must be provided for study and for attending lectures for all helpers in the district.

Some system enabling girls at school who are taking courses in child care to take the place of helpers attending lectures might be beneficial.

Doctors

It was felt that the medical course should pay more attention to positive child health and to child management.

The School Child—Primary Education

Chairman : C. Fletcher

Secretary : Margaret Rock

Principal, Bingley Training College

Froebel Educational Institute

THE Chairman's introductory statement was concerned mainly with the rapidly broadening conception of education since the nineteenth century. The child's needs must now be considered from the biological, psychological and social point of view, and the present problem was not only how to fulfil these needs, but for what purpose? Educational planning should be directly related to social planning.

The following Recommendations were drawn up to represent the points of general agreement within the Commission:

(1) A Common School from 2 or 3 to about 12 plus, the years from 11 on to be considered as prognostic years (assuming a minimum leaving age of 16).

(2) That for the whole period the following are essential:

(a) Provision for daily contact with plant and animal life, so far as possible in natural surroundings.

(b) That the school should be considered a function of the

social and civic life of the neighbourhood, which would therefore have an essential part in the education of the children.

(c) That school and family life should be integrated by a much closer co-operation between family and school.

These Recommendations (a), (b) and (c), imply that the whole social and natural environment contributes essentially to the education of the child.

(3) (a) That in the common school there should be informal education until the age of seven.

(b) That attendance should be optional from 2-5.

(c) That there should be a rapid expansion of Nursery Schools to meet the urgent needs of this age range.

(d) A majority agreed that there should be a compulsory half-day attendance from 5-6.

(e) That Junior Education should

involve the learning of essential skills.

(4) That at the infant stage growth comes from integrated development of:

(a) Biological co-ordination

(b) Sense experience

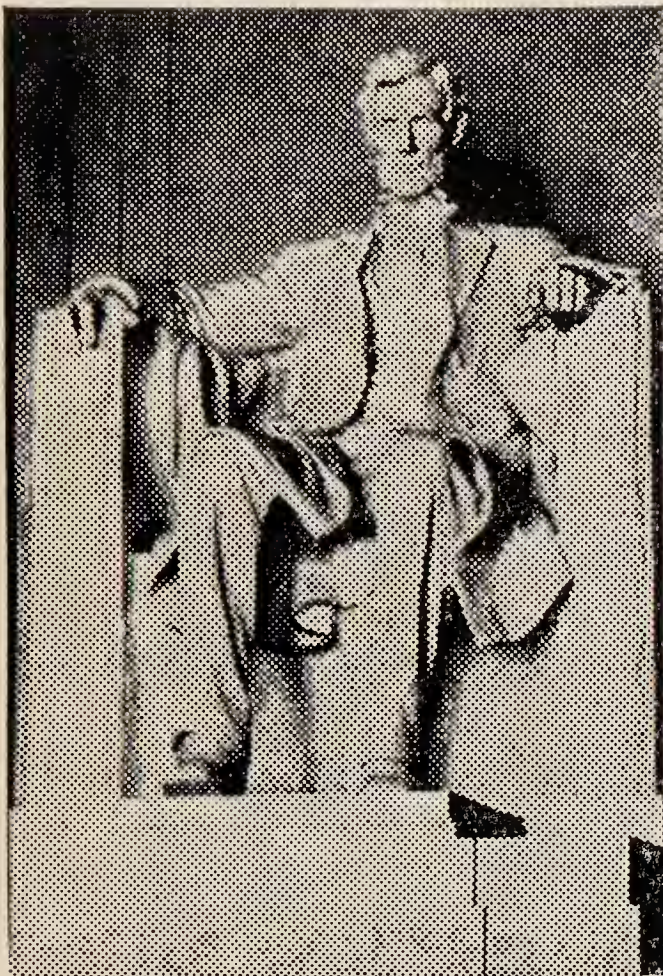
(c) Intellectual growth

(d) Social training.

(5) It is essential that these (*i.e.* (4) *a-d*) be understood by teachers and be a basic part of a training college course.

(6) These factors (4 *a-d*) still hold at the junior stage, but much research must be done before we know the right ages for learning particular skills.

We do know, however, that this is essentially an age of direct observational experience and activity, when there is a great eagerness to learn skills. We should recognize here the needs of society and find out what are the essential techniques needed for social adjustment and train children in them at the most suitable stage of growth. At the same time the school should



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Foreword by

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provide for the full development of creative activities, and the satisfaction of the child's curiosity in his natural, social, and civic environment.

(7) Such education at the Infant and Junior Stage is the right of every child; it will give him his roots in common experience and thus justify the common school.

(8) Classes : Maximum—30.
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Except in the 2-5 age range when there should be one teacher and two helpers for every 15 children.

(9) We have not discussed in detail the question of buildings and equipment, but we are in favour of easily adaptable modern constructions as against permanent buildings which prejudice future development.

(10) That there should be closer co-operation between Educational Administrators, Staffs of Schools, Training College Staffs and Students.

(11) That every school should have at least one secretarial staff.

(12) The Commission had much discussion on the relation of the Common School to Post-Primary education. They felt that there was need for a great deal more before any decision could be reached. They were, however, in general convinced that the age of transfer to post-primary education should not be determined either by chronological age or by a scholarship examination, but by :

- The stage of maturation of the individual, probably at about the age of 12 plus.
- Consultation and co-operation between Parents, Health Officer and Teacher.
- Estimate of the child's ability and probable line of future development based on (a) and (b) and on a detailed cumulative record of his development throughout the Common School.

We presume that this record will include diagnostic tests about the value of which the group has not enough expert knowledge to make any definite recommendations.

These recommendations were the result of considerable discussion, a brief account of which is given below.

Nursery Schools

There was general agreement on

the value of a regulated intermixing of children of different ages, especially on the grounds that it helped to reproduce ideal family conditions. It was pointed out that the biological unit was the family, and that while nursery schools were started as a therapeutic measure for a disordered society the common life of marriage gave parents a greater potential natural ability to bring up a small child than any trained teacher could have. Co-operation between mother and teacher in the nursery school was therefore of the greatest importance.

A judgment of ability by a standard of attainment in the three R's was false and should be replaced by a considered recognition of all-round social development. The commission agreed that, though there should be opportunities for reading before the age of seven, the child should learn through informal activities until that age. It was the parents, both the well and the poorly educated, who insisted on some concrete knowledge of the three R's from the five-year-olds—mainly because it was an economic necessity that these children should later win scholarships. This was further evidence of the need to consider educational problems alongside social ones. The need was increasingly great for educational propaganda, wider adult education, and further co-operation between the school and the parents, who should see the children at work.

It was agreed that children between two and seven should be taught in one building, and that between that department and the Junior department there should be full understanding and co-operation on educational principles.

Separate training for teachers in Infant and Junior Schools was suggested by some because many teachers who had won scholarships found unacademic teaching extremely difficult.

Various miscellaneous suggestions were put forward :

- That the natural readiness of older children from, for example, a Central School, to help in the Nursery School by making or mending toys and generally mixing with and helping the younger ones should be encouraged. In this way many girls discovered a vocation

for teaching or nursing, and it was tragic that so many of them were prevented by lack of scholarships from taking it up.

- (ii) That each school should have a garden, a male caretaker, and a school 'bus.
- (iii) That each school should give the children opportunities for pottering round the activities of older children and of adults. This pottering was an excellent method of satisfying and stimulating intellectual curiosity.

The Common School

The Commission discussed at great length whether the Primary School should be a Common School: one to which all children were required to go, and though it was unanimous in its approval of the Common School points were raised against it, as well as in its favour; and the discussion can be most easily summarized in this form:

FOR—

- (i) It would give real equality of opportunity in education.
- (ii) Children from all classes of society would gain from mixing with each other if they grew up together from the Nursery School.
- (iii) It would be a clear step forward in the process of eliminating the present type of class differences.
- (iv) Parents who would have sent their children to private schools would use their knowledge and influence to see that the standard of education in the Common School was raised above that of the present Elementary School—*e.g.* they would insist on smaller classes.
- (v) The example of the U.S.A., where a modification of the Common School was widely used.
- (vi) The example of Germany, 1918-1933, where there had been practically a Common School till the age of ten.

AGAINST—

- (i) Against (iii) it was said that the lack of class distinction among the children would be of no value while it was retained by their parents.

In reply to this objection

it was maintained that it might be necessary for the class-conscious parents of one generation to have relatively classless children, however regrettable this might be.

It was also said that class distinction will be maintained: the rich will go to school in the rich districts and the poor in the poor.

- (ii) Children should not be thrust into a Common School till the adults have settled the type of society they require.
- (iii) The Common School is unnecessary: if incomes were more level anyone would be free to choose the type of school he wished.
- (iv) The Common School, and especially the principle of compulsion, is an unjustifiable interference with the freedom of the individual.
- (v) If the standard of the elementary school is raised the private school will die a natural death.
- (vi) For the exceptional child the Common School would not provide academic education early enough.

Against (vi) it was pointed out that the Common School did not imply a common curriculum.

- (vii) There is danger of a levelling down instead of a levelling up.
- (viii) Children from private schools would probably lose the sense of leisure and space which was one of the most valuable contributions of their environment.
- (ix) In the Common School there might not be opportunity for the educational research done in some private schools.
- (x) Difficulties of language and accent.

Against (x) was set the admitted fact that children are capable of speaking with two types of accent, and of suiting their speech to their environment.

In so far as the Common School was a development of the present elementary school ninety per cent. of the children in the country already went to it.

The child's environment was formed by the home, the neighbourhood, and the school, and his actions as an adult were based on

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his experience as a child. The environment of home and neighbourhood would always vary from child to child, but common experience in a common environment was one of the greatest social necessities of children to-day, and it was only in the school that this could be found.

The worst enemies of the common school were those who agreed to send their children when it was firmly established, but in the meantime did all they could to prevent its introduction.

If it was objected that snobbery would work against the common school it could be replied that the common school would itself help to eliminate the differences from which social snobbery arose.

If the common school, with its smaller classes, was adopted, there would be a sudden demand for thousands of teachers. Even this, as the experience of Russia showed, where 70,000 emergency teachers of language were trained in a year, was no final obstacle. If in this country factories could be built in three months when we *wanted* them a quick supply of teachers for an interim period *could* be

raised, so long as the training was stabilized afterwards (and the analogy with factory not pressed too hard).

With full recognition of the magnitude of the step a majority of the Commission advocated the immediate introduction of the Common School, before the present quickening of the social conscience was deadened by post-war apathy and reaction.

Discipline

A discussion followed based on the analogy between discipline and health, which was defined as 'the mutual synthesis of the organism with its environment'. The child who had lacked the satisfaction of a healthy early development would regress when taken into a good nursery or junior school in an unconscious attempt to make up, in his now suitable environment, for this previous deficiency. Thus the discipline of the child came through the use that he made of a wide selection of material, and from the readily accepted habit of himself taking out and putting away into the proper place all that he used.

Nature Study in Towns

It was generally agreed that for the study of nature, and especially of plant life, in the early stages of education several cycles of growth must be observed; the plucked flower pining in a pot was a poor substitute for the plant in the ground.

It was suggested that through the post-war need for vital foods land would be cultivated in or near the big towns, and this would give the child an opportunity for regular observation. Possibly land round the school building might be cultivated by the children and their parents for their own and the school's needs.

Junior School Curriculum

If, as was agreed, learning through observation and experiment should be the fundamental source of the child's experience, subject periods would have to go, since it was agreed that activities should be based on the interests of a particular group of children at a particular time.

The enormous capacity of the child between seven and twelve to

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absorb experience, and his boundless intellectual curiosity, were constantly stressed, and though it was generally agreed that the curriculum should still be based on activities the gradual replacement of sand and water by good libraries of books, films, pictures and gramophone records, showed how much wider these activities could be.

It was clear that there was not yet enough knowledge about the stage in the child's development at which he naturally wished, or could best try, to learn any given skill nor, consequently about the order, if any could be established, in which the skills would be learnt.

The discussion, therefore, formed itself into a succession of observations from those who had had experience of an activities curriculum at the junior school age.

- (i) There was need for a period of conscious digestion by the child of his own work, longer even than that needed in the Nursery School.
- (ii) Gardening and cooking gave practice in number work and weighing and measuring.
- (iii) No marks, punishments or rewards were of value.

(iv) Children could keep records of their own work.

(v) The only time-tables necessary were notices of the times when special rooms—*e.g.* for music—were to be used. Otherwise group and individual activities were the main work.

(vi) By the age of eleven there must be, through careful records of work, physical, emotional and social development, some estimate of the skills each child had acquired.

(vii) In his last year or so the child saw for himself the need for strengthening the skills at which he was weakest.

(viii) Regular group activities with children of widely varying ages were valuable.

The Age of Transfer

Discussion on this point was prolonged, but the main issues were clear and readily agreed on:

- (i) That the 'age' of transfer was (broadly) biological and psychological age and not chronological.

(ii) That the optimal age might fall between the chronological ages of ten plus and thirteen plus, but would normally be nearer twelve plus than eleven plus.

(iii) That there was evidence that in many cases, if not in all, there was a period, measurable in days, when a close observer could see by the change in the child's social behaviour, that he was ready to move on.

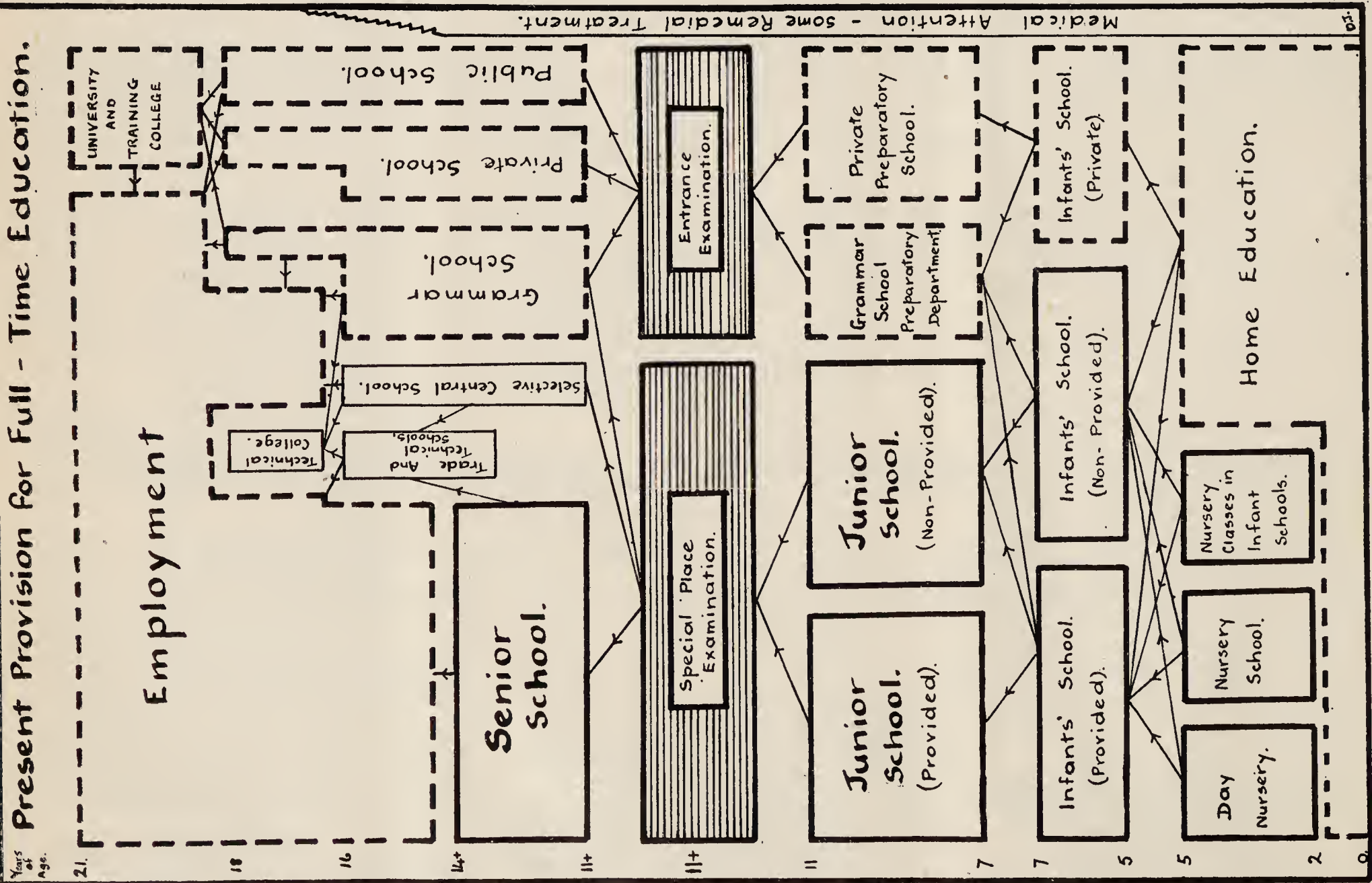
(iv) That the system of transfer should be flexible enough to allow the child to move on as nearly as possible at this period.

(v) That the age of transfer should be determined as recommended below in section (12) of the Recommendations.

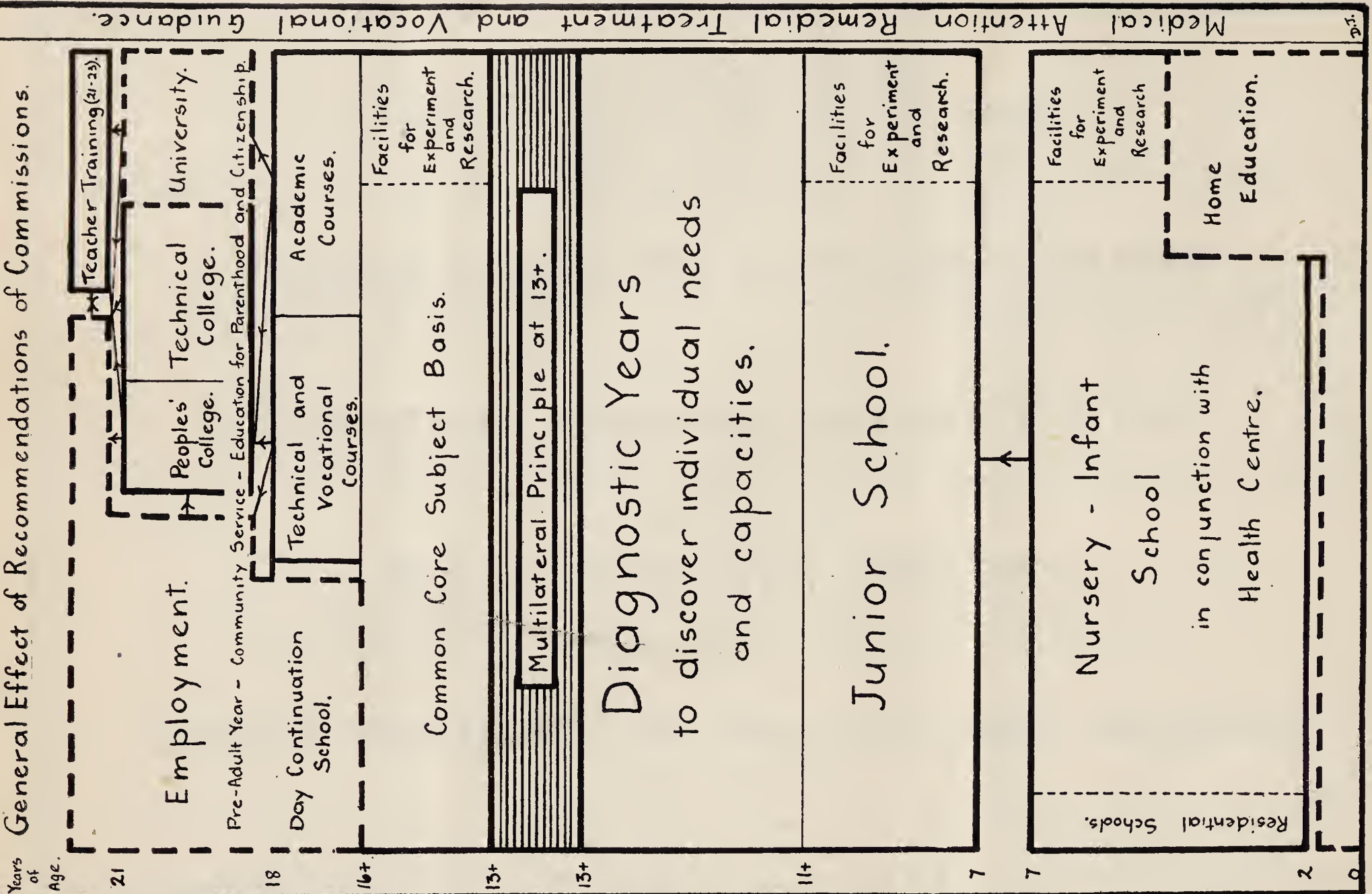
It was generally felt that the diagnostic tests should be made in the primary school, by those who knew the child, but the opinion was strongly held that they should be made by those in the post-primary, who didn't.

But as no one knew very much about diagnostic tests the issue was left at the mercy of prejudice.

Present Provision for Full - Time Education.



General Effect of Recommendations of Commissions.



NOTE.—(i) Broken line shows institutions only partially controlled by the State (ii) Nursery, Infant and Junior Schools, and Diagnostic Period (0-13+) were included in one single Primary School Unit by Commission B—Commission C left open the question as to whether the Diagnostic Period should be post-primary or primary (iii) Private Schools abolished by Commissions B and F; allowed to atrophy by Commission C (iv) People's College shown as discussed by Commission E (v) Teacher Training to be post-21 (Commission E) (vi) Year of National Service discussed by Commissions D and E—no definite

The School Child—Post-Primary

Chairman : A. K. C. Ottaway

Secretary : Mrs. Pat Dennis

THE following fifteen recommendations were accepted by this Commission at the conclusion of their discussions :

(i) That all post-primary education should be brought into a unified system, and administered by a single code of regulations.

(ii) That equality of opportunity is an essential aim, and shall be taken to mean that all children are enabled to receive the type of education best suited to their needs and abilities, without regard to their place of residence or to the financial or social status of their parents.

(iii) That all schools, however different in type, should have parity of status and esteem, with equivalent standards of accommodation, staffing and equipment, and that teachers in all stages of education should be equally well trained and paid.

(iv) That the multilateral principle should be applied in the reconstruction of post-primary education. This multilateral principle to mean in practice that the various types of secondary education would be provided either in different departments of the same school, or by means of grouping together different schools with some form of common direction to ensure ease of transfer.

It was suggested that the second part of this recommendation should be accepted as a transitional stage only, and that the whole recommendation was intended to approve the multilateral principle and no more.

(v) That whatever the age of transfer to secondary education, the period from 11-13 years should be regarded as diagnostic, in order to decide at 13 to what further education the child is suited. During these diagnostic years education should be on a common basis with necessary variations to suit rates of development and ranges of intelligence. This education should not be of the same nature as the present academic schooling.

(vi) That diagnosis to decide the type of education suitable for each child after the age of 13 should depend on :

(a) Cumulative school records carried on from the Primary School, which will include the child's medical history.

(b) Wide and varied diagnostic tests under the guidance of a member, or members, of the school staff specially trained for the purpose.

(c) Consultation with the parents.

(vii) That the minimum age for discontinuing full-time schooling should be raised to 16 years, and that there should be compulsory part-time education until the age of 18.

(viii) That the Public Schools and other independent schools should not be subsidised out of public money under any condition except complete participation in the state school system.

(ix) That no private school must be permitted without a licence from the Board of Education and periodical inspection.

(x) That it should be part of the duties of the Board of Education to encourage educational experiments and research inside as well as outside the schools, and to make special grants for this purpose where necessary.

(xi) That all secondary education in the state schools should be free, and that there should be adequate maintenance allowances to cover the extended period of education up to any age which, in the opinion of the educational authority, is beneficial to the child.

(xii) That the post-primary school curriculum should be based on a central core of essential subject matter necessary for all children, but varying in standard according to ability and to the age of leaving school.

Studies and activities of this central core must include :

(a) The English language, including literature and drama.

(b) Social studies, consisting of an integrated course of history, geography and civics. The objective of such a course is to develop individuals who are aware of the kinds of society in which they and other peoples of the world live, and who are able to take their parts as effective citizens

of a democracy. To this end it is important that the school society should be permeated with democratic values, which should be illustrated by some measure of self-government, providing situations for solving problems on democratic lines, and ensuring that those who have to obey the rules should have some hand in framing them.

(c) General Science.

(d) Elementary mathematics with everyday life applications.

(e) Practical activity involving skill with the hands.

(f) The arts. Some form of activity and appreciation to be expected of each child.

(g) Physical Education.

On the question of providing some form of Christian education the Commission was equally divided for and against with some members not voting.

(xiii) That in addition to this core of basic studies and activities more specialized subjects of both an academic and technical kind should be provided at different stages, from which a choice could be made according to the type of education required by each individual. Specialization would increase with the years, and the central core decrease, but we would suggest that the common core should never entirely disappear.

The different stages should be as follows :

(a) 11-13 years. The diagnostic years. Work should be based on the common core subjects, with additional subjects, *e.g.* a foreign language, for those people with necessary ability.

(b) 13-16 years. The normal academic subjects would be provided for pupils continuing full-time schooling to 18 years.

In addition there would be courses of the same nature as those now followed in the Junior Technical Schools, expanding and increasing the scope and broadening the meaning of technical education to include new subjects, *e.g.* agriculture.

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(xiv) That a school leaving certificate as a record of courses followed and standards achieved should be given by each school, and there should not be a general external examination like the present School Certificate. This internal school certificate should include the results of standard proficiency tests in the particular technical and vocational subjects studied.

Entrance to the university should be determined at about the age of entry by the university entrance examination in conjunction with school records.

(xv) That the entire school life must be thought of in terms of the needs of the pupils at differing stages of maturity. Each stage must justify itself in terms of the contribution it makes to the development and life of the child at that stage, and not only as a preparation for some future stage.

Points of Disagreement

(1) Whether the years 11-13 plus

- should form part of primary or post-primary education
- (2) The desirability of boarding schools or of periods in residential schools or camps
- (3) Whether paid employment should be allowed under the new minimum leaving age of 16 years
- (4) Religious education
- (5) The necessity for applying an external standard to an internal leaving certificate and how it should be applied

POINTS FROM THE DISCUSSION ON THE ABOVE RECOMMENDATIONS.

Multilateral or Unilateral Schools

There was general agreement with the view that the multilateral type of school would help to break down the undesirable social distinction between schools existing at present. It was pointed out, however, that even in a multilateral school it was possible for distinction to become attached to the academic side, although it was less likely.

A discussion followed on the administrative and transport difficulties involved, particularly in country areas; but evidence was given that experiments had met with considerable success.

It was thought necessary that there should be some provision enabling the country boy who showed aptitude for work of a type not generally provided for in his multilateral school to attend a town school, the necessary maintenance allowance being made.

The question of the optimum size of a multilateral school was raised and a section of the Commission thought that individual attention might be lost in a large school of this type.

It was agreed that the mixing of children pursuing different courses of study would have a desirable cultural effect, and the simplification of the problem of transfer of pupils from one course to another in a multilateral school was noted.

Age of Transfer

Emphasis was laid upon the fact that education must be expressed in terms of activity and not learning, and so the problem of transfer must be freed from obsession with the academic approach.

The question of the need of fixing a chronological age of transfer was raised and two points were made in discussion :

(i) Some rough average for the beginning of post-primary education was necessary.

(ii) 11 plus was chosen purely to suit the needs of administration.

In a discussion on 11 or 13 as the best age of transfer it was stressed that the rate of development of the child was the deciding factor, and there was need for more psychological experiment.

It was generally agreed that while it is possible to transfer at 11 it is not possible to decide the child's future course of development at this age.

It was therefore suggested that the years 11-13 be considered as a period of diagnosis and be freed from academic formalism.

Methods of Diagnosis

The following suggestions were put forward :

- (a) Well kept, cumulative school records. These records to be kept throughout the primary school period.
- (b) The usual Intelligence Tests for I.Q. to have their place, but be supplemented by aptitude tests, and tests of special abilities. Many such tests are still in an experimental stage, and it is highly desirable that such research should be continued.
- (c) The extension of diagnostic tests would require the appointment of a specially trained member of the staff to each school to undertake

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this work and co-operate with visiting examiners.

- (d) Strong co-operation between the parent and the school.

Minimum School Leaving Age

It was assumed that it was desirable for the activities of all young people up to the age of 18 years to be under educational control. The discussion therefore dealt with the minimum age for discontinuing full-time schooling.

Some members of the Commission felt that if there was a guarantee of economic security parents would not wish their children to leave school until they were fitted to do so.

Others thought that it would be preferable to allow the child the privilege of being a full-time scholar, but leave him free to choose between school and work. In exceptional cases it might be better to leave school at 14, provided that the work subsequently undertaken was controlled by educational authorities. Successful collaboration with factories with apprentice systems were quoted.

It was stated that it was wrong to precipitate the child into industry or other work at the age of 14 years, a time of great physical and mental strain. This view was shared by most members of the

[The reports of the last three Commissions—*Transfer to Industry, Adult Education and Administration*—will appear in the November issue, along with a brief post script. All reports were especially prepared for "The New Era" by Mr. and Mrs. Ian Michael.—Ed.]

THE SCHOOL CHILD—POST PRIMARY

Commission, who thought that the development of the child necessitated a minimum leaving age of 16 years.

During the additional years from 14 to 16 many subjects could be included in the curriculum which could not usefully be introduced at an earlier age.

The Future of the Public Schools

By way of introduction it was stated that the enormous influence of the public schools on social values in this country is out of all proportion to the small number of the population which they represent.

The boarding and house systems and the advantages to boys and girls due to the high incomes of their parents were put forward in favour of the public schools, but it was said that these schools and their advantages had value only for a social milieu which it was hoped would cease to exist.

It was decided that the main point at stake was the desirability of incorporating the public schools in a state system of education, either completely or on certain conditions.

Some people were in favour of 50 per cent. free places in such schools as a condition of incorpora-

tion, with a stiffening of the entrance examination. There was opposition on the grounds that this would 'cream off' the best children from the State Secondary Schools and lead to the Public School entrance examinations dominating the whole educational system.

Others were of the opinion that the State should ignore the Public Schools and set up such effective opposition that they would die a natural death. This was felt by many to be wishful thinking.

The majority of the Commission supported the view that the public schools could not be subsidized out of public money on any condition unless they become part of the state system. This would entail conditions of entry equivalent to those which held in the multilateral secondary school.

It was added that if schools were set up on private money they must be subject to supervision, in the interests of the state and the children attending them.

The position of experimental schools was raised and some people considered it likely that state control would hinder their work. Others thought that this difficulty would not arise and that a high degree of experiment was possible inside the state system.

Book Reviews

Mexico's School-made Society, George C. Booth, Stanford University Press, California and Oxford University Press. (2 dollars 50.)

Education's Role in War and in Reconstruction, obtainable at 221 West 57th Street, New York City. Redefer.

The volume under review is a study of the way in which Mexico is developing and using its schools in the service of its social values. The process should be noted. The values were adopted as those of the state and then the school system was changed in order to strengthen and consolidate these values in successive generations. The book is a most valuable one for the student of comparative education and its issue at this moment is timely. It is impossible to summarize its argument adequately—its value lies in the sense of dynamic power behind an educational movement which it conveys. The general outlook may be gathered

from the following statement which is taken from the introductory chapter. 'A plan is worked out for the betterment of society, and for the betterment of the state. The state then has the duty of carrying out the programme in a strong uncompromising manner.'

English educators would do well to study in detail the statement on the rights and duties of the child as given in Chapter 1 (pp. 14-17). The child has the right to the acquired benefits of humanity; to issue from healthy parents; to come to marriage educated for parenthood; to nutrition at all times and to special care in sickness to feel the pleasures of investigation and discovery; not to have imposed upon him the views of others; to a local school, to facilities for games, etc.; not to be exploited by being set to work prematurely; to the co-operation of teachers and parents; to the removal of factors which lead to delinquency and so on. His duties are to consider all other children as equals and brothers; to make himself conscious of the needs of others; to think

and act for the benefit of the communal group; to care for his health; to seek social justice; to combat idleness and vice, etc. This stressing of the rights of children in connection with their duties shows how intimate is the connection visualized between the individual and his society.

It must not be thought that here is a record of an experiment carried through to a successful conclusion. It is something that is more valuable than that at this moment. It is a statement of a purpose and of a struggle to attain that purpose. 'To educate is to redeem' is the slogan of educationists in Mexico and in the service of this faith they are labouring unceasingly to provide increasingly satisfactory educational facilities. At present there are good schools and deplorably bad ones. Some teachers 'try to change the system to fit their own whims at all times'! Of one school it will be said, 'They're years ahead of us'; in the next there is an example of just 'muddling through'. But the great thing is that it moves and movement.

gives life to it. New schools are built and old ones improved. Weak teachers are strengthened while in service and will be later replaced by stronger ones. The plan is not 'a theoretical one, existing only on paper. It is a programme of action, formulated and reformulated by strong athletic men and women who live the theory they advocate.'

The volume concludes with these words. 'Only time can tell whether or not they will accomplish the redemption of a race that has seldom known anything but tyranny, oppression and exploitation.' Where there is such great faith and such great effort there can be permitted equally great hope.

While I was writing this review there came to hand a pamphlet issued by the P.E.A. of America and written by its secretary—Mr. Redefer. This furnishes an interesting forenote to the above book. 'Long before the war . . . the reconstruction that must take place in the world society . . . had already begun.' To this Redefer adds—'the basic changes in our society force basic changes in educational patterns and the general public is far more ready to support such changes. The present and future call for an education which is realistic, vital, comprehensive; one which is an integral part of the life of the community and nation.'

Here is the call to action in the formulation of our own social values and in the reconstruction of education to sustain them. *H. G. Stead*

Girls Growing Up, by A. P. Jephcott. (Faber & Faber. pp. 172. 6/-.)

Youth has unfortunately become 'popular'—the Youth Movement, Youth Committees, Youth Centres, Youth Leaders, the Needs of Youth have all found their way into the press. The result is that a great deal of nonsense is being talked about 'the boy' and 'the girl'. Counsel is darkened by those who confuse things as they would like them to be with things as they are, and thereupon generate some astonishingly hot air about young people as they conceive them to be.

One feels, therefore, at once a blessed return to realities when one opens Miss Jephcott's book and finds that the first chapter is a girl's own story of school, her family, and a succession of joyless jobs.

The authoress has had great experience of industrial boys and girls, but she is endowed with that very rare gift, a capacity to lay aside her own knowledge and her own personality and let the facts speak for themselves. The whole book is based upon the answers given by girls between 14 and 18 in different parts of England and Wales to a series of questions about the things they like best, about their job, their family, their food—and what they

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do with that leisure time which is the only part of the day in which they have any freedom of choice.

The most fascinating—and the most disturbing—chapter is that on leisure, in which the girls' answers to questions about their favourite literature is discussed. Here for the first time is a real description of the magazines they read, the heroes and heroines they worship and the tinsel world of fantasy that is the only counterbalance to lives more dull and circumscribed, more devoid of all the joyful heritage of youth, than those of us who do not know them can realize. Here is a terrible and true record of how we kill that which our educational system was just beginning to bring to life.

This book is as enthralling as a novel, factual as a blue book. It ought to be read not only by everyone directly connected with the 14-18 year old, but also by those who plan post-war education reform. For here is the rock on which democracy must build or die.

Eileen Younghusband

An Enquiry into the Prediction of Secondary School Success.

W. G. Emmett. (University of London Press; 58 pp. 2/-.)

The publication of this timely little book places progressive educationists still further in debt to the staff of Moray House. A considerable amount of research on the prognostic value of different types of examination for the purpose of Secondary School Selection has been done, but this appears to be the first large-scale experiment of which the results have been made generally available. As many as 765 children, special place holders and fee payers in the West Riding of Yorkshire, were given a Moray House Intelligence Test and papers in Arith-

metic and English upon entering the Secondary School. After two years, and again after three years, the head teachers were asked to classify the children according to their general progress in the school. The initial scores in Intelligence Test, English and Arithmetic papers were then correlated with the Secondary School assessments, with the following results:

	School Assessment after two years.	School Assessment after three years.
I.Q. ...	·442(·719)	·454(·736)
English ...	·323(·683)	·335(·702)
Arithmetic	·304(·671)	·330(·694)

The effect of taking a small and highly selected sample of the school population is to reduce considerably the size of the correlations, and the figures in brackets therefore show what the correlations *would have been* if the population of the whole school had been thus assessed. The best single measure of later performance is given by the Intelligence Test.

Considerations of space make it impossible to describe the statistical methods used, but these are of no less interest than the results obtained. The pamphlet contains many items of interest to teachers, such as the statement: 'Evidence is accumulating that an assessment by teachers in primary schools gives at least as good a prediction as any of the papers in an admission examination.' Here is the case for the cumulative record card rather than the special place examination. Combined with a standardized intelligence test it might release the primary school from the conditioning effect of performance papers, and the child from the vagaries of individual examiners. *David Jordan*

The Reliability of Mental Tests.

George A. Ferguson. (University of London Press; 150 pp. 6/- Net.)

The increased use of Mental Tests of various kinds makes it more necessary to subject our testing methods to continued scrutiny so as to make them more perfect instruments for their purpose. This is the object of this book, which in Part I discusses the theoretical basis of test reliability, and in Part II deals with the 'reliability and constancy' of Intelligence, English and Arithmetic Quotients as measured by Moray House Group Tests. It also makes comparison between Group and Individual Tests.

The non-mathematical will find the book difficult to follow, though the author claims that knowledge of the simple rules of algebra and the elementary principles of statistical method will be sufficient for understanding it. He points out that the *reliability coefficient* normally used is a correlation between two series of fallible observations which are themselves subject to influence from

psychological factors. The coefficient therefore is an indicator both of the accuracy of the test as a measuring instrument, and of the constancy of the ability tested. Yet in spite of such careful distinctions his own conception of 'reliability' is far from clear. The book is, however, a valuable contribution to the literature on mental testing, and if widely read should reduce the amount of uninformed and profitless criticism of methods of mental measurement which is at present prejudicial to the wider adoption of new forms of mental testing.

David Jordan

'Looking Ahead' - Educational Aims—being the First Interim Report of the Conservative Sub-Committee on Education. (The Conservative and Unionist Party Organization, 24 Old Queen Street, Westminster, S.W.1.)

It is impossible to review this pamphlet in any adequate manner in the space available. It would be easy to select some items from the list of recommendations and to point out how similar these are in outward form to the proposals made by other bodies. It would be futile to conclude from this, as one Journal has done, that this similarity signifies a removal of education from the sphere of political controversy.

The pamphlet might have been more accurately termed 'An Essay in Political Philosophy, with some educational applications', or perhaps even more aptly 'A Treatise on the Relation of the State and Religion'. It deserves careful reading and demands very critical reading, with a mind alive to the full implications of the point of view argued. It illustrates perfectly the truth that it is the underlying purpose of education which is the determining factor in the whole process and that the need of to-day is to be clear as to our purpose, lest we be dazzled by the means suggested to achieve any purpose, and so come to view the means as the end.

It is impossible to select any extracts and to use these to illustrate the argument of the pamphlet. It is a closely woven whole and can only be considered as such. It is possible to point out that it seems to stress 'the responsibilities of a colonizing and missionary world power' more than the need to make ourselves fit to work co-operatively with other communities in a common task of learning to live together. Many will find the distinction drawn between two aspects of religion a matter for deep consideration. The Report says: 'Religion in the United Kingdom needs to be conceived, politically and administratively, in general terms as a basic and vital element in the national life, to be deliberately encouraged and fostered.'

Again: 'The State must do its best to ensure that every child is given opportunity of help towards the awakening of the religious sense.' The reviewer is troubled about those words 'politically and administratively.' They seem to imply that the religious outlook of the Child is a matter for political control. The pursuit of this thought would take us far afield, and there is no space in which to discuss the full implications of this point of view. But here is the old thesis of the joint rulership of the Church and State restated in the form of the State and Religion, with the Churches (not one Church) becoming extra-State organizations fostered through the 'political and administrative control' of religion by the State. The rest follows from this view. Any reader can deduce it

by the exercise of logic. Accept the premise and the practical applications follow. But what of the premise?

The Pamphlet is written in a style which is attractive and forceful. It will be widely read, and it is to be hoped, carefully and critically studied, statement by statement.

This is Not the End of France, Gustav Winter. (Allen & Unwin. 2/6.)

Mr. Gustav Winter has produced a balanced and objective account of what is happening in Vichy France to-day and has shown not only how France came to be in the situation in which she now finds herself, but also why we may hope that her eclipse is merely temporary.

The book is divided into three parts. In the first, 'From Versailles to Munich', the author shows how the disunity within France's political parties, whether of left or right, and the weaknesses and intrigue which characterized the working of her parliamentary machine sapped that democratic inspiration which should have prevented the first major capitulation of Munich. In the second, 'From Munich to Bordeaux', he shows how those defeatist elements, to whom had gone the first triumph, engineered the second—the capitulation of Bordeaux. And lastly, he describes in detail what that capitulation has meant and is still meaning for France, and how the French are themselves now actively resisting the Germans inside France as well as through the Fighting French Movement.

Taken all in all this book does for the general reader what Colonel Tissier's 'The Government of Vichy', does for the more specialized reader. The author succeeds in imparting a mass of detailed and accurate information on conditions in present-day France, which has been much needed in this country. It is precisely, however, because the book performs such a valuable service that it is worth while mentioning one or two small points of presentation which, as the book stands, are likely to confuse the average reader who has not been following events in France from day to day. The book was clearly written some time ago, but only appeared in English in the early summer of this year. The reader is therefore often left to guess which year is meant in expressions like 'last April' (page 202) and 'in January' (page 210). Moreover, as French opinion has gone through so many changes since the capitulation, it is confusing to quote examples from the press without giving any indication of their date. Again, some of the statements made are no longer true. For example, *La France au Travail*, which Mr. Winter describes as 'the organ of the French Nazis' (page 243), has not appeared

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since August, 1941. The clandestine paper, *Valmy*, had already ceased to appear by the beginning of this year (see *France*, 23-1-42). The 'Compagnons' movement, which Mr. Winter says 'secured only a few members after a great deal of effort and nothing more was then heard about it' (page 206), is still, on the contrary, producing a weekly magazine (not wholly submissive to the Vichy régime) and has recently held an important anniversary celebration, at which over 7,000 delegates were reported to be present. It may perhaps also be added that one irritating error mars an otherwise excellent translation (if indeed it is a translation; the point is not clear): to translate 'syndicalisme' and 'syndicalistes' by 'syndicalism' and 'syndicalists' respectively, is misleading to all those who are not able to guess that Mr. Winter is talking about trade unions and trade unionists. But these are only small errors of detail in what is, generally speaking, a most sober and accurate account of present-day France which will be indispensable to the reader who is trying to keep in touch with events and has only the press to rely upon.

What is more detrimental in a work, mainly of reference, is that the serious student, to which this book is addressed, finds neither index nor analytical chapter headings nor any other guide to help him find his way about the book. It is to be hoped that a subsequent edition will remedy this defect.

The foregoing remarks refer to the third section, which is undoubtedly the most valuable part of Mr. Winter's book. The first section, which reviews briefly French policy during the twenty years between the two wars, while it brings out the full extent and implications of the tragedy of Munich, does seem to a British reader to place too much blame on France and to ignore the extent to which she was, in fact, dependent on Great Britain. France is to-day, as the author says in his concluding chapter, 'learning by bitter experience' the fallacy of the Maginot Line mentality (page 292). But that mentality was itself partly fostered by France's fear—and who shall say it was not, on the face of it, justified—that Britain was not to be relied on, that her interests were divided between her imperial and her European commitments. In the factors which led up to Munich must be included a whole series of Franco-British misunderstandings in the field of

foreign policy, all of which went to reinforce France's hankering after security, be it through Protocol, Locarno, the Maginot Line, Central European alliances, a Soviet alliance or all of them together. Mr. Chamberlain's remark about Czechoslovakia was very like M. Déat's famous remark about Danzig. But, whereas the French knew their Déats and how far they could be discounted, the Chamberlains, who dominated British foreign policy from the betrayal of China to the betrayal of Spain and Czechoslovakia, were much more of an unknown, and, to the French, disquieting factor. British foreign policy is not without a heavy responsibility for that lack of democratic fervour which, as Mr. Winter says, characterized French public opinion at the outbreak of war.

Mr. Winter is a Czech who knows France well and who is therefore admirably placed to produce, as he has done, a detached and a well-documented version of France's part in world events since the last war. We are still, however, too close to it all to pass a final judgment. Mr. Winter has made an able contribution to the data on which that judgment will eventually be passed.

The Life and Times of Johann Sebastian Bach, by Hendrik Willem van Loon. (George G. Harrap & Co. Price 6/- net.)

Dr. van Loon has given us a short, but wholly admirable biography of one of the most famous composers of all times. In the apt words on the dust jacket 'it shows (*without sounding like a text-book*) why Bach wrote the sort of music he did'—and this is why I most heartily commend it to the notice of music teachers and school librarians, for the author's own musicianship and sense of humour, coupled with the use of 'homely' language and frequent allusion to contemporary life by way of illustrating his point, make this account of a musician who lived over 200 years ago extraordinarily alive. With such books to offer our pupils the history of music need never become dull. I hope Dr. van Loon will give us some more biographies of musicians. The book is attractively and amusingly illustrated with the author's own sketches.

M. A. C.

The American Venture. By R. B. Mowat. (Dakers. 12/6.)

When the late Professor Mowat met

his death in an air crash on his way back from the U.S.A. last year, he was intending to add a final chapter to this book, dealing with 1940-41. The book is a whole without it, however, and is a welcome addition to the handy literature on American history.

Many histories, though reliable and interesting enough, stand outside the country with which they are dealing, and never cease to be guides for the foreigner. It is one of the merits of Professor Mowat's book that the reader soon finds himself inside America, looking at her story and the problems of each stage from within the American setting. This success in transplanting the reader to the atmosphere of the United States is due in part to skilful writing, in part to the author's enthusiasm for his subject. The leading personalities come to life in vivid sketches. The non-political threads of history—the social life, literature, education, religion and so forth—are always present. A paragraph or two here, an allusion or illustration there, weave them into the pattern of political, constitutional and economic development. While comments and comparisons illuminate historical issues and give them a more than American significance.

Eminently readable though *The American Venture* is, it is not the best or clearest introduction to American history. (For anyone starting from scratch I would suggest Mr. Lionel Elvin's Pelican, *Men of America*.) The book has several defects, which might have been remedied if Professor Mowat had lived to give it a final revision. The apportioning of space to the various periods and topics is rather unaccountable. Disproportionate incidental matter sometimes breaks the thread of the narrative, and there are some confusing jumps backwards and forwards. Too many dates are given—not merely years, but months and days.

When this has been said, it remains to recommend the book as valuable supplementary reading. It contains a quantity of interesting information which the non-specialist may not have come across in other histories. Furthermore, at a time when we are trying to think ahead to the 'new' world that will have to be built after the war, it renders a service in presenting the history of that other 'New World' as largely a record of experiments—experiments large and small in the creation of a democratic society, meant for the ordinary man and woman.

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Volume 23, Number 8

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Education and Industry*

Chairman : E. W. Woodhead
Secretary : Mabel Cheetham

Director of Education for the City of Norwich
Goldsmiths' College

Aims

EDUCATION for young people between 16 and 21 should be regarded as a matter of all-round development and not as primarily concerned with any one aspect. While training and equipping for suitable employment according to ability has its place, due regard must be paid to the development of an integrated personality, to preparation for membership of a dynamic society, to physical development, and to training in the wise use of leisure.

The Curriculum for Youth

This should include :

- (a) Vocational training
- (b) A compulsory minimum of general education
- (c) Recreational activities
- (d) Physical welfare

The Commission felt that for all young persons there must be a compulsory minimum of education in English, social studies and biology, and that in addition there should be offered a choice of activities sufficiently wide to allow interests aroused at an earlier stage to be continued, as well as giving opportunities for vocational training. Such a curriculum would prevent undue emphasis upon education for industry and would cater for the needs of the individual person and the community. Similarly, should there be a period of compulsory

'military training', there ought to be associated with it opportunities for intensive social and political training, preferably under the direction of education authorities.

The curriculum for youth should be supported by adequate medical attention and remedial treatment, and should include physical training and camping. If developed on a large scale these would assist greatly in encouraging a healthy and responsible body of young citizens.

Implementing the Curriculum

Provision of the following is essential :

- (a) Guidance Service
- (b) Day Continuation Schools
- (c) Clubs and Youth Centres
- (d) Training for leaders

(a) *Guidance Service.*—This should be of a comprehensive nature to include placement in work, selection from a number of choices in leisure activities and in part-time education. The service should be in charge of specially trained guidance officers in the employ of education authorities, and the guidance should be based on a thorough investigation of the ability, inclination, and temperament of each young person. To facilitate suitable placement in work, there should be close contact between the schools and guidance officers, and there should be compulsory notification of all vacancies to the guidance service.

(b) *Day Continuation Schools.*—A system of compulsory part-time education should be established. The day continuation school would,

for a suggested period of two days each week, provide vocational courses or recreational activities according to the ability, inclination, and occupation of the young person. In addition the school would provide for all the basic subjects as set out above, thus catering for citizenship as well as vocational training. These schools should be co-educational. They should be so distributed and so linked with technical institutions that there would be opportunity to undertake technical, commercial, or agricultural courses irrespective of place of residence. An additional advantage would be that vocational courses would thus be held in the daytime, a very desirable procedure especially in the case of persons under 18.

(c) *Clubs and Youth Centres.*—In addition to attendance at a day continuation school, boys and girls between 16 and 18 should spend a minimum of five hours each week in approved communal activities in a club atmosphere. Opportunities for this work might be afforded by the welfare departments of industry, by youth organizations, or by the local education authority,—or by co-operation between these agencies. The unit, whether club or youth centre, should be small enough to allow personal contact between the leader and every member.

Compulsion should not extend beyond the age of 18, but facilities should be afforded beyond that age according to demand.

(d) *Training of Leaders.*—For all

* The Commission, whose findings are summarized in this article, suffered from two difficulties. It had few members with experience in this field of education; and large parts of its investigations were overlapped by the commissions dealing with adolescent and adult education.

branches of this work among young people there must be adequate training and this might be associated with the training of other social workers. Many teachers make excellent leaders of youth but recruitment must be from wider sources. Training should include actual work in school, organization, or clubs, and should also afford familiarity with conditions in industry.

Leaders should be particularly skilled in encouraging personal development, in attending to problems

of maladjustment and in giving advice on religious and moral problems.

Implications for Industry

Those firms which regard their businesses as associations of persons, in keeping with the community in general, are coming to consider training for citizenship and the wise use of leisure as at least as important for young persons as vocational training.

Apprenticeship, wages, hours of work must be reviewed with these

needs in mind. Wages in particular should be regulated so that young persons do not choose to remain in an occupation on these grounds alone. More careful guidance and reduced hours justify an element of compulsion upon young persons in the use to be made of their leisure time.

Further Research

In all aspects of this work, and especially in the matters of guidance and apprenticeship, there is urgent need for careful research.

Chairman : J. A. Lauwerys
Secretary : Miss Dinah Fine

WE assume that the purpose of organized education beyond the normal school-leaving age is to foster the faith required to maintain a democratic society and to develop the social sensitivity and skill which will enable it to function. Connected with these aims which make for social health is the need to maintain industrial efficiency by developing skills of hand and of mind, and providing knowledge and information.

In short, we have to extend and strengthen what the school has done, or should have done.

Further Education for those leaving School at 16 years

We divided our discussions into two sets of problems. First, those concerned with the great mass of our people who show comparatively little interest in, or ability for, intellectual pursuits. These presumably will leave full-time schooling at the age of 16 years, and will enter industry, trade, or commerce, continuing to receive part-time instruction in schools of all kinds.

To some extent the needs of these young people will be catered for by the various agencies connected with the Youth Movement. We hope that their social and political education will not be neglected. It is the duty of those dealing with the requirements of these groups to provide situations which will lead to experiences fruitful in the development of a social conscience, a proper civic pride, and a feeling of duty and responsibility towards the community. In addition, some knowledge must be given, to balance enthusiasm and to back it well with the requisite information.

We hope that some of these young

people will develop interests in the running of their own town or borough, that they will investigate the way in which the community runs its affairs, and that some will study political theory. It is necessary that they should be encouraged to participate directly in as many of these things as possible, and that they should be encouraged themselves to organize and carry through projects or undertakings useful to the community. Such experiences as those of getting things done by and with a committee are a valuable exercise in the development of co-operative attitudes and mutual tolerance.

All this part-time and leisure-time education needs completion; the different parts need to be welded into a harmonious whole. To achieve this welding it seemed to most of us both necessary and desirable to have a period of about a year (at the age of 19 or 20) during which systematic instruction could be given. This period of instruction could well be associated with the year of National Service which will almost certainly be compulsory for both sexes. Part of this period may have to be devoted to military training; we hope that part of it may be devoted to community service of all kinds; we feel certain that part of it must be devoted to Social and Political education and to education for parenthood.

The purpose of this social and political education is to integrate the will, feelings and knowledge of the young citizen, moving them to necessary action, giving them the knowledge required to tackle the problems they face, fostering their

faith that democracy provides a framework within which solutions can be found and applied. We want to broaden the imaginative grasp of the problems that face local and national communities and the whole of mankind.

If this sort of education is to be successful all of us must learn to be more conscious of the values implicit in the democratic way of life, better prepared to explain and defend them, and more aware of the promise they hold out for the richer development of human individuality.

Ceremony marking Entry into Full Citizenship

A suggestion which attracted much sympathetic attention was that it might be well to have a definite ceremony or celebration to mark the entry into full citizenship: a welcome extended by the community to the new adult, an occasion when responsibilities and privileges would be stressed. It was felt that democratic states should make fuller use of such ceremonies which appeal powerfully to many.

Further Adult Education

The entry into full adult life does not mark the end of the educative process. Adults need to maintain mental health, physical skill and knowledge. In a modern world, with its quickly changing techniques, and with rapid obsolescence of skill among workers this is a fundamentally important problem.

We welcome the present development of all forms of adult education, both formal and informal, and we look forward to the further extension of these services in contact with the University, the Technical School, the Agricultural College, the

Reader in Education in the University of London

Queen Mary College, London

Village College, the Trade Union, the Co-operative Society, etc. It is in the highest degree desirable that these facilities be provided in ever-growing measure. It would probably be well if they were more carefully co-ordinated and if public funds were more easily available to them. Greater attention should also be paid to the occasional needs of groups of people who simply desire to meet and discuss things in an informal way without the restriction of a fixed syllabus.

The Problem of Employment

A problem which haunts modern society is that of finding full employment for all adult citizens who desire it. Hitherto this problem has been approached in terms which stress the factor of economic production rather than human happiness, as if man's whole purpose was the maximum production of goods with market value. We suggest that in the better world that we wish to see we should have preparation for richer living associated with industrial training instead of preparation for war associated with military training.

In more concrete terms we suggest that the slack in employment be taken up by providing forms of education suited to adults—making available to varying numbers of them courses of industrial training and of general education, lasting six months or a year, at intervals of five, seven, or ten years. If the intake of students was regulated to the rise and fall of employment, that is to the trade cycle, we should have a powerful method of diminishing its impact, and of using it for the purpose of raising our level of living. We should also help to maintain the morale and efficiency of our industrial army.

Further Education of those receiving Full-time Schooling to 17-18 years

We turn now to the problems presented by the smaller, but no less important group of young people capable of benefiting from more rigorous, intellectual and systematic courses of study than those we have envisaged so far: roughly the group who will receive full-time schooling to 17-18 years.

Some of these people will go, as at present, to the University, and take a degree after three years, that is before doing their period of National Service.

The universities, as at present constituted, provide education suitable for only a small number of those who, in the world of tomorrow, will desire to go on to further systematic study. We have to contemplate the possibility of this number being multiplied by four or five within the next twenty years. To force them all into regular University work would mean forcing them to undergo academic treatment unprofitably. It might also have the unfortunate effect of making the university lower its intellectual standards. In addition, to force so heavy a load of teaching upon it might render more difficult its task of advancing knowledge by original research.

We therefore suggest that we should encourage by all means in our power the foundation of General Colleges or People's Colleges, which would be concerned with the general education of young people between the ages of 17 and 20. We hope these would help to serve the needs of future teachers, social workers, probation officers, journalists, clergymen, psychologists, Youth Leaders, etc. At the end of a course in such a College there should be a diploma in general education which, for purposes of salary, etc., should count as equivalent to a degree.

Professional Education: The Training of Teachers

Agreement was expressed with the points of view of the Training College Association and the Council of Principals, which appear to be well calculated to serve the ends in view such as helping to secure a more mature and better educated teacher, giving a greater degree of mobility within the profession and moving towards a more unified teaching profession.

It was also felt that proposals for the training of future teachers must take no notice of the present division into schools of differing scales. For instance, we consider it unwise to suggest a shorter period for teachers of younger pupils.

One possibility which received much support was that Professional Education should be given in the period immediately following the year of National Service. This education might cover one, or preferably, two years and should provide facilities for following up special interests.

This scheme offers the following advantages:

(1) The age at which students would decide to become teachers is four or five years later than at present (21+).

(2) Future teachers are not segregated from other students during their general education.

(3) It would be possible for older persons with experience of trade, industry, etc., to enter the Professional College, which would also be fed by students from University, General College, Higher Technical School and Agricultural College.

Refresher Courses and Sabbatical Years

Many teachers, as their experience grows, feel an increasing desire for an opportunity of extended and systematic study, to refresh their knowledge, keep abreast of changes, travel, or do research in education.

These problems are similar to those discussed earlier in connection with occupational obsolescence.

We agreed, therefore, that teachers would be unable to do their best work unless they were released at various times for continuous study or travel. The contemplated length of these periods varied between two months and two years, according to differing needs.

This would mean releasing teachers on full pay or seconding them; also finding temporary teachers to take their places. In this connection it was suggested:

(a) That students from the Professional College might teach for continuous periods of 2-3 months in place of the absent teacher

(b) That many married women who had taught would welcome the chance of part-time or short period employment.

We agreed that provision should be made by Fellowships, Studentships, Grants-in-Aid, etc., to enable large numbers of teachers to work at Universities, Professional Colleges, etc.; release for general welfare work in Youth Clubs, Hospitals, etc.; and a vast increase in summer courses for teachers were recommended, and it was suggested that the Board's fellowships must be greatly multiplied.

Finally, all schemes to arrange visits from and to other countries should be welcomed. In this connection the possibility of attachés at legations and embassies, empowered to arrange transfers, was raised.

Educational Administration

Chairman : Miss J. P. Slight

Secretary : Miss Gwennah Lee

Assistant Director of Education in Lincolnshire—parts of Kesteven

Bedford College, London

Central Authority

THE Commission first discussed the need for a Ministry of Education. It was generally agreed that the Central Authority should be a Ministry, with full status; that the Minister for Education should be of Cabinet rank, primarily an educationist and not a tool or political convalescent.

Juvenile delinquency should be a problem for the Central Authority, and all special and approved schools should be in its charge.

Local Authority

It was agreed that if there was to be unity of post-primary education Part III Authorities must go.

There was some discussion of the constitution of the Local Education Authority, which was considered to be haphazard; there was felt to be some danger lest teachers appointed to it should become too 'officially-minded'. It was suggested that the multilateral system would overcome some of the difficulties of professional representation, but that the greatest need was for regular meetings and co-operation between teachers, which it was the Local Authority's business to arrange.

From this the discussion passed to the difficulties of the administrator. 'The great temptation seems to be to avoid trouble at any cost.' He should have experience of many kinds of schools, but adherence to the Burnham Scale made this difficult.

The size of the administrative area must depend on the possibility of a feeling of community, without which it was doubtful whether there could be efficient local government. It was suggested that the population of the area should be between 150,000 and 250,000.

It was agreed that the L.E.A. should remain, since it gave scope for local knowledge of local conditions. It was asked whether paid experts resident in the area could not fulfil the same function. But the value of local personal interest was stressed; especially that it gave encouragement to the teacher. The value of a fairly large L.E.A. was that it gave scope for specialization among the medical, inspectorial and administrative staff.

The School and the Community

Great stress throughout was placed on the need for contact between the school and the social life of which it was a part; the school must be the community school. The child must not have to go to a school bearing no relation to its community, as might easily happen with a large multilateral school. The country school was in constant danger of isolation. The best position for schools was on the fringe of the town. Part-time boarding, as in East Suffolk, in areas with a scattered population, was discussed; it allowed variety of specialization in different small schools.

Included in the relation between the school and the community is the relation between school and employers of juvenile labour, with whom the need for personal contact is very great. The employer's demand for certificates necessitated formal examinations which led to over-specialization and its obvious evils. Co-operation with the employer might modify his attitude, and his suggestions and advice could be valuable.

The region served no useful purpose as an intermediary between the L.E.A. and the Central Authority, but there was need for co-operation between L.E.A.s in, for example, advanced technical and academic education.

Teachers' Advisory Service

The Commission was unanimous in its desire that current advances in educational method should be more widely and rapidly made known. It was suggested that there should be a Reader in Education on the staff of the Central Authority who should, by some form of foreign news service, keep teachers in touch with experiments and new books here and abroad. Few teachers had time to keep abreast of current literature or to use the library of the Central Authority, and there was much need for something like the preparation of abstracts to supplement the work of *The Times Educational Supplement* and the *Journal of Education*. The Central Authority might publish a Monthly Bulletin calling attention

to current experiments; L.E.A.s should be prepared to send representatives to see and report on them. The work of the American Federal Bureau was mentioned in this connection.

Inspectors

Was there a place for L.E.A. Inspectors? There was advantage, especially in thinly populated country districts, in a travelling administrator. The local inspector must be carefully chosen, but the right type could keep the L.E.A. and the schools in very close touch, and would make reform easier and quicker. There was at present a higher proportion of women among local inspectors than among those of the Central Authority.

Teachers resented the appointment of an Inspector or Administrator who had no teaching experience. As one of the most necessary qualities for an Inspector was maturity of judgment it seemed that a minimum of six or eight, and an optimum of ten or twelve, years' experience was necessary. Inspectors should be recruited from as wide a field as possible.

Although elementary and secondary inspectors met at regional meetings the need was stressed for a type of inspector whose range included the whole educational system; this would be possible if all schools were under the same code.

There was need for more movement within the profession; interchange of teaching, administrative and inspectorial staff. This raised the question of their relative salaries, but the matter was not discussed.

Voluntary Bodies

The voluntary bodies, such as the Scouts and Guides, and other organizations for Youth Service, had a contribution to make to education and should be encouraged. Voluntary bodies with a state grant should be inspected. (The term 'inspector' was queried by some, who suggested 'adviser' or 'helper'.) The voluntary bodies should be aided on conditions which satisfied the community that the money was being properly

pent; that the work of the voluntary bodies was to the advantage of the community. The Commission felt strongly that such aid from the state should be wider and more definite; the state should not only encourage the voluntary movement, but should take positive action in providing children's theatres, and youth centres, where apparatus could be provided and spontaneous schemes developed.

Educational films should be the responsibility of the Central Authority, and wide encouragement should be given, as in Russia, to theatres and cinemas for children, from whom suggestions should be seriously considered. This policy would more than ever make necessary education in the techniques of listening and watching. There was little agreement on the question of interference by the Central Authority in Cinema and broadcast programmes.

A closer co-operation was recommended between the health and education services, based on the natural interdependence of health and education in the family.

Finance

There could be no equality of opportunity while the present widening system was in force. The present elementary grant makes some attempt to balance out, but the secondary grant favours rich areas.

The Dual System

In most of the non-provided schools the teachers were appointed by the school managers. In the State secondary schools the appointment of teachers was being more and more taken out of the hands of the head. Unless the committee was very able this would lead to the death of all experiment.

Against the Church schools it was said that most were financially incapable of keeping up with the times, and that their buildings and general conditions were poor. There was too little safeguard against serious discrepancies in educational standards between provided and non-provided schools, for example, the alleged servility of children in Roman Catholic schools.

The suggestion that in Church schools the teachers for religious instruction should be appointed by the managers, and the others by the L.E.A., was inadequate. It was by

no means certain that the State should consider education a purely secular matter.

The State should be responsible for all education, the dual system should be abolished, and sectarian religious instruction should be carried on outside the school.

This step was preferred to the suggestion that the Church school should be made to conform to standards which they would find financially impossible.

Independent Schools

In so far as the independent schools maintained a privileged upper class they were condemned; nor were they justified by the valuable experimental work of a few while there was increasing scope for variety and experiment within the State system.

It was not wise merely to allow the independent schools to disappear slowly under economic pressure; that would prolong the danger of a decaying governing class.

Co-operation between Parent and Teacher

The purpose of co-operation between parent and teacher was not social amusement, moneymaking, or to make the parent useful, but to benefit both home and school by mutual knowledge and mutual interest. All the parents should automatically be considered members of a Parents' Association, which would elect a consultative committee. The only final solution to the problem of co-operation lay in community centres—a combination of the Cambridgeshire village colleges and the Peckham Health Centre—in which all sections of the community were partners in education. If library service were incorporated in this scheme it would help parents to look on these community centres as centres of learning and information.

These centres would probably be the best way of influencing public opinion on matters of education. Broadcasting, films about schools, and more co-operation between L.E.A.s and parents were also recommended.

Recent housing estates which left no space for schools were mentioned as a warning of the need for co-operation, through the Council, between the Education Committee and the Planning Authority.

Recommendations

The Commission drew up the following recommendations, which supplement and summarize the above report of its discussions:

(1) That the present Board of Education should be replaced by a ministry equal in status to any other ministry. The Minister of Education should be a person of eminence who has shown himself to be deeply concerned with Education. The post should be of major Cabinet rank, and in consequence the Minister should enjoy longer tenure of office. There should be three under-secretaries, at least one of whom should be a woman.

(2) The province of the Ministry should embrace all matters of development, including health from the beginning of pre-natal care to the end of adolescence. The powers of the Central Authority over the L.E.A.s should be increased so that if through incompetence or negligence the children in any area should not enjoy equal opportunity with their fellows in other areas the Ministry should without delay appoint Commissioners to take temporary control.

In pursuance of its general policy the Ministry should stimulate and encourage experimental work and co-ordinate and disseminate the results by the publication of books, the preparation of abstracts from current educational literature, by films, broadcasts, and by other means.

(3) There is urgent need for considerable increase in the number of inspectors for the Central Authority. Among the functions of these inspectors would be

- (i) Advising teachers on local problems in the light of their wider knowledge
- (ii) Helping teachers to keep in touch with experiments in education at home and abroad
- (iii) Conducting Teachers' Congresses.

In short, the Inspector of the Central Authority may be thought of as a travelling professor of education, whose visits to the schools should be sufficiently frequent for him to be able really to know the teachers and to help them.

(4) The L.E.A. should remain because its members have local knowledge and are in a special position to stimulate local interest,

but there should be in future only one type of local authority for the whole field of education. The area of the future should be so planned as to include elements of town and country, and in size should be large enough to provide varied opportunities of post-primary education, but not so large that contact between administrative staff and the teacher is difficult or impossible. A population of 150,000 or 250,000 is suggested.

(5) The Commission does not wish to see any form of regional authority, but co-operation between groups of L.E.A.s for certain purposes, *e.g.* orthopaedic work and some forms of technical training, is essential. There is also need for universal provision for reciprocal arrangements between L.E.A.s for children living on or near boundaries.

(6) The State should ensure that no L.E.A. is handicapped by its own poverty.

(7) The position of chief Education Officer should be a statutory appointment subject to the approval of the Ministry of Education.

Officers of the L.E.A. should include travelling administrators through whom the local office would maintain an intimate connection

with the schools. The administrative officers, including the Chief Officer, should have had teaching experience.

(8) The Commission regrets the inferior opportunities now given to some children in certain non-provided schools. The State should be responsible for the education of all children, and the present dual system should be abolished.

The Commission does not wish to see the continuance of a separate education system for certain members of a privileged class. The change would necessitate a safeguard that no teacher doing good work in any type of school should lack the means and opportunity to continue it. The Commission intends thus to bring greater variety into the State system.

(9) Parents and teachers should realize that they are active partners in education, and frequent and sympathetic consultation between them is therefore essential. The Commission deprecates any action which would make parents feel unwanted in the school. Parents should be welcome visitors to the school, which should be a part of the community centre to which everyone goes in pursuit of further education.

The teacher's work thus extended would call for a sufficient increase of staff to ensure that no one has a teaching week of more than ten sessions. (A session is considered as a morning's, an afternoon's, or an evening's work.)

(10) No town-planning scheme should be carried out without prior approval of the Education Committee, nor should schools ever be built without effective consultation with the teachers in the area.

(11) Transport in connection with educational services should be regarded as a service to the community and not as a profit-making concern.

(12) One of the paramount duties of the education system is to see that every child has access to the best possible opportunities for healthy development.

(13) Such things as libraries, children's theatres, children's odd-job rooms, camping sites, swimming pools, should be the concern of the education service. The State should foster existing enterprises by generous and even lavish expenditure, and hold out both hands to young people who are developing projects of their own.

Give the children the tools and let them finish the job.

THE conference of the English New Education Fellowship, whose findings are reported in this and the previous issue of the *New Era*, was attended by about one hundred and eighty members and sympathizers, and was held at the Physical Training College, Bedford, from August 4th-8th. The greatest gratitude is due to the Principal, Miss Stansfeld, and to her staff, for the considerable amount of work their hospitality involved, and for the comfort it provided. The same holds good for two of the Froebel Training College hostels and for Bedford School. The thanks of the Conference are due also to Dr. Walker, Director of Education for Bedfordshire, and to the staff of the Education Office, who were of great assistance not only in the preliminary arrangements but during the whole time of the Conference. No member of the Fellowship will need to be reminded, but it must here be formally recorded, that without the tireless work of Dr. H. G. Stead, the Organizing Secretary, the Conference, if it had been held at all, would have lacked its chief inspiration and the form to which it owed much of its success. Of the many others who gave their help there is no space to make individual mention, but we are very grateful to them.

Post-script

The Conference met to discuss proposals for reform made during the past eighteen months by various educational and political bodies. These proposals, summarized by Mr. Hamilton, were sent to members ten days before the conference, together with a selection of topics for discussion suggested by them.

The Conference was arranged, so far as possible according to the interests or special knowledge of members, into six commissions, each of which was concerned with one principal stage of education. Attached to each commission as Secretary was a representative from the National Union of Students, and the Commissions owe much to the efficiency with which these secretaries carried out a difficult task.

Each commission met at least six times; there was one joint meeting of chairmen and secretaries, and at a final meeting of the Conference the findings of each commission were read, in a shortened form. It will be seen, therefore, that the recommendations embodied in these reports represent as yet the opinions only of the commissions which framed them or of a majority of those commissions. It is

most important that this should be clearly stated whenever these recommendations are quoted. Until they have been laid before the English New Education Fellowship as a whole they cannot, of course, be taken to represent the considered views of the Fellowship. Further, as will be seen from the reports, there is not complete agreement between the various committees on certain important questions. The reception given to the statements of the chairmen of the commissions at the concluding meeting would seem to indicate, however, that there was fairly general agreement on the major issues. And we feel that the main recommendations are of intrinsic importance made as they were by groups of people engaged in various parts of the educational field and after a study of the recommendations of many bodies.

M. and I. Michael

International (N.E.F.) Notes

The duplicated 'News and Notes' issued by International Headquarters N.E.F. giving brief notes on N.E.F. activities in different countries is now ready for Autumn, 1942. Anyone who would like a copy should send a post-card to N.E.F. International Headquarters, 50 Gloucester Place, London, W.1.

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One of the most conspicuous gaps in our salvage of Greek literature is the loss of the plays of Menander, the most famous representative of the "New Comedy. Although he wrote over a hundred plays, none survived, and it was not until the beginning of the century that the first papyri began to be discovered in Egypt. Some years later fragments of seven plays were given to the world, and one could at last appreciate the charm of Menander's style, the "Attic salt" of the dialogue, the sensitiveness of the character-drawing. Professor Murray, impelled by curiosity as to what a complete play by Menander may have looked like, has ventured on translating the fragments that survive of the *Perikeiromenê* and filling in by conjecture—and at times happy invention—the deplorable gaps in the papyrus. The scene is a street in Corinth, about 320 B.C.

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Jottings from a Conference

Fabian Conference on Content of Education, Oxford, September, 1942

Mrs. Margaret Cole—*What Every Child Should Know*

In Britain the old classical education has merely been modified to make room for science, modern languages, etc. The curriculum has not been organically planned. In modern society we must have clear ideas as to our needs. Our State primary system was never a real system, merely the multiplication of the best of what existed earlier.

Suggested minimum content :

- (i) read, write and speak the mother tongue.
- (ii) read and write the language of numbers (maths., etc.)
- (iii) elements of science and scientific method
- (iv) health, hygiene, domestic science
- (v) every-day facts about economics and politics. (Though the Spens Report and the L.C.C. Education Committee regard them as too difficult and controversial, economics can be presented *via* geography, politics *via* history and civics)
- (vi) physical training and manual training, also community life as in camps, community singing.

Further there should be opportunity for music and the arts. The modern schools have shown how to give a

choice of activities, arouse interests, how to use references and the right use of scholastic leisure.

Points from the discussion were : Religious education not essential in scholastic minimum as it is the task of the churches. A sense of social purpose is needed, social precepts, social consciousness, should come out of all subject matter.

H. G. Stead—*Education for Citizenship*

Education is the deliberate provision of society whereby the younger generations are prepared and initiated into the life of the adult community. Therefore the purpose of the community determines the purpose of education ; it is either static or dynamic as the community is. (Education is a wider term than schooling.)

Assuming the community is dynamic, then : (a) it wishes to integrate its young people and to use their creative energy in the development of the community ; (b) it is willing to devise means and methods for the diagnosis, development and use of the capacities of all citizens on a basis of equality. This demands a functional conception of education. Functions which any individual must exercise in order to be effective in society :

- (i) as an individual, to develop personality and 'be aware of his world' ;

- (ii) as a member of his community, to be competent to deal with social-political environment ;
- (iii) in the occupational sphere, he must have technical, professional or vocational proficiency ;
- (iv) as giver and receiver of communications, he must be both expressive and appreciative.

This gives four essential elements for the 'core' of education : individual interests, social and political education, occupational education, and education in communication. (These will be referred to later as IND., SOC., OCC., and COM. respectively.) These elements form a common core which gradually expands up to the age of 16, which is presumed to be the school leaving age. Afterwards there is greater specialization, mindful of the necessity for enabling each individual to function to his maximum capacity and efficiency.

Nursery School Stage—

- | | |
|------|--|
| IND. | Health, individual play |
| SOC. | Physical and social habits, group play |
| OCC. | Constructive play |
| COM. | Speech training. |

Many activities (especially during the primary years) fulfil overlapping functions, *e.g.* health in both IND. and SOC., art work in both IND. and COM., etc.

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Primary School Stage—

- IND. . Health, P.T., etc., hobbies and interests
- SOC. . Social studies, history, geography, science studies
- OCC. . Various activities
- COM. . Expressive reading, writing, dramatics, appreciative music, arts.

In the post-primary period differentiation begins, but must not be rigid or decisive; this is the diagnostic period and is best served by the multilateral school. Curricular content now includes increasing explicitness of attitudes based on earlier implicitness; further development of communication by an additional language.

- IND. . Core, private study, use of sources
- SOC. . History, geography, comparative studies, natural sciences
- OCC. . Specialization begins, science and social studies, general basis of technology and agriculture
- COM. . Core and additional language.

All should receive some of each element, but may specialize according to capacity and interest. The advantage of the multilateral school is that various combinations of content can be made. At this stage these tend to develop two groups, leading towards two types of occupation: (A) science and technology, (B) sociological studies. Special interests and aptitudes are further developed by individual study. In the post-school (transition) period the core remains, specialization continues, giving four main streams: (A) continued academic studies, (B) natural science, (C) apprenticeship and part-time study, (D) repetitive work plus occupational leisure and technology. At this stage occupational leisure must not be neglected, particularly for the last-named group.

The principles of diagnosis, development and use in function, with due regard for the needs of society of to-day and to-morrow, will give a unity and purpose to the curriculum which it has lacked hitherto.

Points from discussion: Army

education activities show a high percentage of young people lacking in general knowledge of facts and in interest. This applies to a certain extent to officers as well as men. Reforms following Hadow Report have been slow to operate; the 'post-Hadow man' seems to be better in these respects.

Henry Morris—*Post-School Education*

All communities need centres where the members can learn to think, practice the arts and educate the emotions. 16 to 30 are the most important years. We should reconstruct our environment and plan our living so that our visual environment is based on art forms and provision is made for corporate life. We need community centres in city, suburb, town and village. The senior school can be planned as the community centre. There is real value to the child when the school also has this function, and it is important to link adolescent and adult groups.

Adult education at present has no system. The W.E.A. has tried to fill in deficiencies of knowledge and information; it has done good work but must now meet the needs of the present. Theirs has been the method of learning by discourse, not learning by living. Our problem is to combine 'salvage' work with a philosophy of education; while we must improvise, we need a long-term policy. The ultimate form of society is not political but cultural. There is no hope of a common English culture until there is a common school.

J. A. Lauwerys—*Education in America*

It is well recognized in U.S.A. that agreement on curriculum implies similar agreement on national and social policy. One-third of the research study in the Office of Education in Washington is on curricular problems.

The elementary school (about twenty million children) spends half the time on the three R's, a sixth on natural and social sciences and one-third on P.T., arts, crafts, etc. The secondary school (attended by seven million children, a far higher proportion of

whom are resident than with us) has an elective system, i.e. pupils are offered a choice of subjects from four or five groups. There are many courses in industrially applicable subjects, such as radio repairs, which have an equal status with other more 'cultural' courses. There is a much greater awareness of social application and relevance, and great importance is given to social studies.

In U.S.A. they have a more practical scientific outlook than we have and greater willingness to change, e.g. a commission investigated the school-college relation, and the examination bogey was laid low—though the teachers tended to show themselves rather conservative. The P.E.A. investigated over a period of years the approach of 30 schools to the core curriculum. An evaluation staff assessed the experiments and found that the schools tended to go through the following four stages in their approach to the curriculum: (i) cultural epoch, (ii) unified studies, (iii) contemporary problems, (iv) pupils' needs. A commission made a special study of the needs of adolescents, which is resulting in important changes in the curriculum. The findings of this commission have been passed on to the teachers by means of study bulletins, study conferences, summer workshops, etc. Parent study-groups have also been encouraged.

To sum up: There is equality of educational opportunity in U.S.A. There is more stress on growth and adaptation, more response to social change and a more vocational, practical outlook in the schools. These are more explicitly democratic, and are society centred rather than child centred.

Madeleine Berg

[Miss Berg's notes on the N.U.T. Conference have had to be held over till next month for lack of space.—EDITOR.]

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Letter to the Editor

STALYBRIDGE,
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DEAR MADAM,

At a time of educational planning, it may be proper to point out again that a most valuable aid to our national well-being is not utilized on a sound and satisfactory basis. The majority of Local Education Authorities have decided against the employment of married women teachers. True, the present emergency has brought many of them back into service, but they are regarded, and employed, merely as stop-gaps.

Now the married woman teacher of early middle age, who has successfully reared her own children, is probably the most valuable asset any school could have. Her mind is alive to the bewildering variety of problems which young children present, for she has had to solve them in and on her own behalf. The fact of there being no screen of artificial behaviour between herself and her children has led her habitually to regard children from the standpoint of their natural selves, rather than as pupils. This makes a healthy attitude between teacher and child. The theories learnt in student days and practised in school will have been clarified and sharpened through the intimate contact with her own children. Such women should be on the staffs of all schools, and should certainly preponderate on those of Nursery, Infant and Junior Schools.

There would be needed but a short refresher course to bring them into line with up-to-date educational thought and practice. Parents would be glad to have them in charge of their children. The ground of common experience and understanding would establish confidence, and the union between parents and school would be immeasurably strengthened, with increasing benefit to the whole community.

Yours faithfully,
L. Corlett

Book Reviews

The Fear of Freedom. By
Erich Fromm. (Kegan Paul.
15/-.)

The last twenty years have witnessed an extraordinary phenomenon—the renunciation of freedom by large groups of people and their submission to dictatorial rule. The economic and political causes and character of Fascism are everywhere the same, and that line of explanation is fundamental. But it leaves one question unanswered: how does it come about that numbers of people, who stand to lose by Fascism, are willing and even eager to accept it at the price of the very things which used to be thought most precious?

This phenomenon is not peculiar to Germany, though it has assumed its fullest and most startling form there. Other countries have gone Fascist. And the same trend has been observable elsewhere, including the old-established democracies.

Dr. Fromm's valuable book tackles this psychological problem. In a very interesting historical discussion he sets out his view of the emergence of the individual and the evolution of freedom from the later middle ages, through the renaissance and reformation, to our own time. The upshot is this: man has attained freedom from certain external traditional bonds and become an 'individual', only to find himself isolated, insignificant, powerless, an instrument of purposes outside himself. His individuality and freedom are largely illusory. He may be free to act according to his own will, but he does not know what he wants or feels. He may be free to express his thoughts, but he is unable to have thoughts of his own. In his lonely freedom he is filled with doubt and anxiety.

This unbearable state of affairs (at its most unbearable in the lower middle classes) undermines the individual. He seeks ways of escape. He conforms more and more completely. His activities take on an irrational and compulsive character. Impotent, he longs for power; isolated, he longs for union with someone or something

outside himself. His behaviour pattern is, in short, typically sado-masochistic. He seeks a new submission, through which he may identify himself with something powerful, even destructive.

Fascist authoritarianism seems to fit the bill and with relief he surrenders to it. But it is no permanent way out. Like neurotic symptoms, it offers a solution that makes it possible to go on living, but it does not lead to happiness or growth.

There is a true solution, however. It does not call for the renunciation of freedom. On the contrary, its essence is a more perfect freedom—the inner freedom which consists in the spontaneous activity of the total integrated personality and which involves union with the world, with other men, with nature, with oneself. The conditions of this positive freedom are social. Its attainment depends on the creation of a society which fosters it, as our present societies do not. The material basis is within our grasp. What we have to do is to build upon the historic achievements of democracy a rational economic, social and political order designed to serve human happiness.

Such, in brief, is the theme of Dr. Fromm's book. This summary sketch gives no idea of the wealth of interesting matter which Dr. Fromm brings to his psychological analysis of the

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social scene. He has some exceedingly useful things to say and parts of the book are brilliant. I liked particularly his chapter on Mechanisms of Escape, his analysis of lower middle class mentality, his pages on Hitler, and his remarks on child education. There are other parts of the book which seem to me much less good—in fact, to put it bluntly, some of his discussions seem to me very confused and some of his views very doubtful. Without demanding a neat definition of every term from the start, I do think that there are too many question-begging words scattered up and down the book, too many uncriticised ready-made concepts. Dr. Fromm might have avoided some of these defects if he had acquainted himself more fully with what has been written in English on these subjects. The book should also have undergone one or two further revisions to prune it of diffuseness and repetitiveness.

I do not know whether Dr. Fromm wrote in English or whether someone else translated it from his German. In either case it ought to have been overhauled. Time and again the idiom is German and not English. The definite article is used wrongly, the wrong prepositions are used again and again, the wrong words occur. It is a great pity that the publishers did not see to this, especially since (apart from these gross elementary howlers) the book is very pleasantly and lucidly written.

I make these criticisms with some severity because I am sorry that such a valuable piece of work should leave the impression of incomplete workmanship. It is a book of real importance, a book which deserves careful and critical reading, for it attacks a fundamental problem. And it augurs well for the new series of sociological studies, edited by Dr. Karl Mannheim, of which it is one of the first two volumes. V. O.

The Psychology of Early Childhood. C. W. Valentine.
(Methuen. 22/6.)

The author has shown courage in publishing this volume. Material collected on one's own children, in lay circumstances, is usually boring to the listener; in scientific literature it is often too self-revealing. The author has been able to present his findings in a dignified and systematized fashion that cannot offend his subjects (his five children) and does not offend the reader.

I don't know of any author who has so carefully and methodically studied children over so long a time. (How he found time to do the manifold things which he accomplished in his work is a tribute to his industry!) This book is a gold mine of reference for the student of child psychology. Furthermore, with the comparative

data on five children the observations become increasingly significant. The very wealth of illustration makes the book difficult to assimilate. One would have wished for more tables and graphs as guide-posts, such as those on page 13, Speech Development; page 30, Individual Qualities; page 202, Imitation. It is by such means that the true system of the author is manifested.

The most significant chapters (to the reviewer) are (I) on Play; the author has not yet fully emancipated himself from earlier theories, e.g. 'play as biological repetition', and is a little confusing in his definition which he talks of as a 'general' definition. After this short introduction his 'interpretation' of the play activities is excellent. (II) on Imitation; this is one of the

best chapters in the book, because of the careful observation and the implication for further study and research. He does not take 'imitation' for granted but explores the phenomenon in a studied manner. (III) on the beginnings and development of Language; in this chapter the comparison between the different children is most provocative. It is here that one would have liked to see more comparative charts—those appended are excellent.

Because of the reviewer's own bias,* he was particularly pleased with the calm and satisfactory manner in which the author deals with the Freudian conception of child development. In Chapter XVII he deals with the 'supposed Oedipus Complex' and shews by experiment and observation that this theory is untenable. In the chapter on play he suggests far simpler explanations than the psycho-analytic gibberish (cf. page 178).

Chapter XXI, 'Ideational and Thought Processes', as the weakest. This is partly due to the novelty of the field. I mean by this, that, at present, because of our techniques, adult interpretations are so prone to error. Words as symbols are so often 'port-manteau' words in childhood, used as a mode of expression rather than a means of expression. Again, from this chapter the student must take a pencil and paper and make his own classifications and comparisons. This is a fruitful effort and rather startling in results, but difficult; one wishes the author had done more of it.

A book of 547 pages, crammed full of objective data, well documented (though with a rather skimpy index), which should not only be on the shelf of every child psychologist, but should be read and studied by all students in the field. Professor Valentine has made an important contribution to the field of child (or rather children's) biographies. W. E. Blatz,

*Professor of Child Psychology,
University of Toronto*

Enfants de France, E. Saxelby.
The fourth and final volume (for the School Certificate year) in 'Cours de Français.' (Ginn, 4/9).

This attractive book will delight both pupils and teachers, alike by the quality of the prose and by the liveliness of the illustrations, which revive nostalgic memories in those of us who knew and loved France in all her variety. The extracts in *Enfants de France* are admirably chosen—those from Alain Gerbault and A. de St-Exupéry especially should thrill both boys and girls—and they are so arranged that each one is complete in itself, and does not leave the reader with that tiresome feeling of frustration which attends so many selections. The quality of the

* A bias which, as readers know, the *New Era* does not share, but we are grateful for Dr. Blatz's frankness.—Ed.

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extracts is sufficiently indicated by the names of the authors, and the range is wide. It will be surprising if the book does not set many young students searching for more, which is, after all, the main object of our teaching. Perhaps in a second edition Mrs. Saxelby might give not only the author's name, but also the book from which she takes her extract.

Some teachers feel that it is a pity to use for grammatical study material which gives such pure joy of appreciation, and the regret is shared by many pupils. The question is arguable, but not here. Leaving that aside, the exercises in this book are excellent, well planned, interesting, and exhaustive, and the subjects for essays, always a difficulty, are in themselves attractive and will lead the pupils to use the matter, and so far as they may, the style, of the original. The grammatical summary is clear and concise and very useful for reference. For this reason the book should be valuable for tutorial as well as ordinary class work.

G. K. H. Kirk

(1) **Looking Ahead — Educational Aims.**

(2) **Looking Ahead — A Plan for Youth.** (First and Second Interim Reports of the Conservative Sub-Committee on Education. 6d. and 3d. respectively—The Conservative Party, 24 Old Queen Street, S.W.1.)

(3) **T.U.C. Memorandum on Education after the War.** (The T.U.C., Smith Square, London, S.W.1.)

(4) **Plans for an Educated Democracy.** (The Co-operative Union Ltd., Hanover Street, Manchester, 4.)

The first of these pamphlets has already been briefly noticed in these pages, but it is included again because it is only in the light of what is said in it that the second Interim Report of the Conservative Party can be properly appreciated.

It is possible to classify into three groups all the reconstruction proposals put forward. The first includes those which state a philosophy and from this deduce concrete proposals. The second group makes coherent proposals and leaves the philosophy to be inferred. The third just makes random proposals—something here and something there—but is not expressive of any consistent philosophy.

It is, therefore, of no use merely to study the proposals without a realization of the purpose they are to implement. The proposals may be similar, while the purpose may vary from the establishment of an authoritarian society to the development of a truly

democratic one. It is failure to recognize this truth which leads to the error of assuming that because different parties agree upon the structure of the system of education that this means that education is no longer a political issue. It is fairly easy to get agreement in general terms on the structure of the system. More Nursery education, the raising of the school leaving age immediately to fifteen and subsequently to sixteen, a system of day continuation schools, more adult education—these proposals would to-day receive almost unanimous consent. All the pamphlets under review put forward these suggestions and so do many others previously published.

The points around which controversy turns are those of the purpose and the content of education; of the relation of the State to the Churches, to the Public and Private Schools; the nature of the curriculum; the question of a Common School at the Primary Range and a Multilateral one for the Post-Primary period. It will be seen at once that all these points deal with social and political matters and it is in this field that the real battles for educational progress will have to be fought. To think that the battle has been won because there is general agreement over structure is to adopt the alleged habits of the ostrich, or, to change the metaphor, it is to live in a world of dreams from which there will be a rude awakening.

The Conservative Party's first pamphlet starts with a number of statements with which there will be general agreement. Educational policy cannot be divorced from policy in other fields; all true education is a two-way—a service to the individual or a service to the cause or the community (note how 'the cause' is placed in opposition to 'the Community', though) by which the School is maintained or inspired; society is what the individual members make it, and the richest individuals are those who take most from it and give most to it. Perhaps it is here that the first doubt arises. What if some individuals have no real power in the making of their society? What if it is imposed upon them by—a Hitler? When the report goes on to assert that 'the nation should command the service of all its citizens, high or low, and that this service should be not only willing but efficient' the doubt increases, for here there is implied that any State has the right to command totalitarian service. In view of later statements this is significant. A little further on the Report says 'It must be a primary duty of national education to develop a strong sense of national obligation in the individual citizen, to encourage in him an ardent understanding of the State's needs, and to render him capable of serving these needs.' This basic principle is printed in italics and

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the whole of it has been quoted. What has become of the 'two-way service' of education to which lip service was paid only a few pages earlier? It will be realized that the above implies a one-way service only and it would be subscribed to unreservedly by—Hitler.

This interpretation is dismissed in the report as 'simple and fallacious'. How far it is so will be seen when the second report is considered. For the present it is enough to add that Wordsworth's lines:

'in everything we are sprung,
Of Earth's first blood, have titles manifold.'

are quoted as giving the key note of the education to be provided. Assuredly there is to-day a need for us to realize our responsibilities to our fellow men, but is it not a recognition of our common kinship and destiny that has to be stressed and not a continued belief in our superiority?

One other quotation on this point must suffice. But it shows the inevitable end of the doctrine expounded earlier.

'The individual is a citizen of more worlds than one; and his membership of other societies, human or divine, does not absolve him from the duties which are his as a member of an earthly State. He may certainly conceive these duties to be different from those which the government of his own country requires of him. If that happens, he must submit, or painfully resist and take what comes

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to him. But the State must not allow itself to be diverted from what it considers the right and necessary course by any uncertainty of the individual response.'

And what kind of State is it to which he 'must submit, or painfully resist and take what comes to him'? The foundation is 'generalized religion'. (The State's interest in religion has now changed from a particular to a general form.) So many will agree. But those who are inclined to see in the suggestions made the groundwork for a genuinely Christian revival should read this section again and again. 'The present war is putting the social compromise to a very dangerous strain . . . the influence of the Russian experiment cannot be ignored . . . the decay of religious belief exposes people to the temptation of ill-considered social experiment.' The impression is left that the State is to use religion as a means for preventing social unrest. It will take a general interest in religion and the churches will be auxiliaries who will build on the groundwork laid down by the State.

Towards the end of this pamphlet is a section on 'Ability and Leadership'. Here we read: 'The special contribution made by the public and preparatory schools to the end we are discussing (the education of talent and the development of leadership) is too valuable to be jeopardized; and that it would be jeopardized if they were to lose their independence and become a mere part of the State system.' Inevitably one asks whether all this pamphlet is not intended to deal only with the education of the led.

The second Conservative pamphlet is noteworthy for one thing—the word religion is *never mentioned* in it. I have checked this statement twice and believe it to be true. By far the

greater part of the first pamphlet is concerned with the need for a Christian basis to the State. When the curriculum for the 14-18 group is under discussion one would expect some religious education to be included. But the hope is a vain one. What do we find suggested? There is to be:

(a) Physical education (to produce toughness); (b) English; (c) Science; (d) Simple applied mathematics. These should be regarded as the 'core' of the work.

No more need be said. The purpose of the Federation of Youth is clear. Toughness and technical efficiency are the sole subjects of this training (do not let us degrade the term education by calling it that). It is to be hoped that all will consider the inevitable end of the philosophy so disarmingly expounded in the first Report.

The Trade Union Memorandum does not explicitly state a philosophy, but there is one implicit in all the proposals made. It is a document which cannot be summarized, for it is in effect the result of long discussions and reports. It ends with 65 recommendations covering the whole of the field of education, including Full-time Schooling, Day Continuation Schools, Further Education of the Adolescent and Adult, the Educational 'ladder', the Health of Children, Administration, Salaries, Grants, and the Dual System. It advocates experiments in the direction of multilateral schools, suggests the abolition of private schools as such, retaining a few for experimental purposes only. The curriculum suggested for the Day Continuation Schools is interesting and should be compared with that given above. 'In the curriculum of day continuation schools the claims of general education must take first place. The aim should be to create in each student a social awareness, a sense of citizenship, and a sense of his own responsibility for the full development of his own capacities as a human being.'

It is from such statements that the Philosophy must be inferred. It is significant that the Trade Union Congress should, in the midst of its preoccupation with industrial conditions, have devoted so much study to the question of education.

The Co-operative Society pamphlet is written by Dr. John Thomas, the Society's Director of Education and represents the views of the Educational Committee of the Society. It is forcefully written and again covers the whole field. It advocates the common school at the Primary stage and the multilateral school for post-primary years. The reasons for both are admirably stated.

The Philosophy again is mainly implicit, but the following quotation from a resolution passed unanimously by the Edinburgh War-time Congress of the Society indicates its nature.

'That the whole aim of the new Educational Order should be to set up a state of society where the advantages and privileges would be enjoyed not by a few, but shared by the men and youth of the nation as a whole irrespective of wealth or position.'

The pamphlet ends with excellent suggestions for a new Education Bill and with a call to united action. 'Only by means of a live and vigorous public opinion will the Government be roused to realize that co-operators and their friends are serious in their plea for a new order of education, with fair play to child, adolescent, and adult. Only an educated democracy can cope with the building of a new post-war world.'

It may appear that an undue proportion of space has been devoted to the Conservative Party's Reports. This is due to the fact that these Reports are mainly statements of general principles, whereas the others are mainly definite recommendations. It should not be assumed, however, that there is no philosophy behind the T.U.C. Memorandum and the Co-operative Society's Plans. There is—and it is a very definite one. Any small group which wants an interesting and worth-while subject of study during the winter could do much more than to take these pamphlets and compare philosophies, structure, and curricula. The note of warning on which this review opened must be repeated. Let no one think the similarity of structural details implies unity of purpose in education. To that wishful thought the pamphlets under review give the direct lie.

H. G. Stead

ERRATUM.—We much regret that in the last issue the price of *This is Not the End of France*, by G. Winter, published by Allen & Unwin, appeared as 2/6; this should have read 12/6.—ED.

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Cultural Aspects of Vocational Education¹

F. Clarke, M.A., Litt.D.

THE more I have thought about the implications of the topic under discussion, the more do I realize how momentous and far-reaching they are. I now feel that in this innocent-looking title the whole crisis of our times is involved. Put the issue in the form of a practical question and it might run:

How are we to produce men and women who, without inner conflict or disharmony, can, with singleness of life, both perform their technical jobs and live richly as human beings and citizens?

Success in achieving this desirable end has been attained in human history much more rarely than is generally supposed. Now and again and here and there a limited class, favourably placed, has been able to achieve it for a short period. Usually it has been either an energetic and creative governing class at the head of a stable society or a free peasantry in some well-protected area where nothing very revolutionary is happening. Athens in the time of Pericles and England in the time of Elizabeth are examples of the one; Republican Switzerland and, perhaps, Puritan New England of the other.

From such times and places you derive a feeling that life is all of a piece, that men are both competent and imaginative: in judgment, skill, and inventiveness equal to the practical demands of their situation, and in the things they produce, utilities as well as ornaments, able

imaginatively to give expression to all that is best in their experience.

It is well to remember that these somewhat rare spots of achieved harmony, where practical effectiveness, beauty, and rich expressiveness come together for a moment in a great life pattern which gives scope and stimulus to the creative powers of even humble individuals, are not the result of deliberate education in any formal sense. They happen as the result of a favourable conjuncture of historical circumstances.

The thought should give us pause, for faith in the possibilities of sheer educational contrivance, whatever the existing state of society and culture, is a little overheated just now. The grim truth is that, in our own time, formal education, if it knows its job, must realize that conditions are not favourable for its true purposes. If it sets itself to its true task it will be working much against the prevailing grain, and the job, if pursued sedulously and with full integrity, becomes a dangerous trade. So it ought to be in times like these.

It is a great English writer, himself having a strong savour of Elizabethan quality, who has given the noblest expression to this ideal of the perfect marriage through education of the cultural and the vocational. John Milton, writing in the stirring times of the Civil War, tells us—

'I call therefore a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skilfully, and magnanimously all

**Director, University of London,
Institute of Education**

the offices, both private and public, of peace and war.'

There you have it; the vocational objective conveyed in the words: 'all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war,' and the cultural quality in the adjectives, 'complete and generous,' and the adverbs, 'justly, skilfully, and magnanimously'. I would call your attention especially to the force of that fine word 'magnanimously'—'with greatness of spirit'. That at least we ought to be able to understand at a time like the present.

What prospect have we in our present situation of achieving anything like this ideal?

Not much, I feel bound to say. I must repeat my conviction that the chances are not favourable, that historical conditions are, on the whole, against us, and that it is history as a whole rather than formal education which alone can create the favourable situation.

Let us then look a little more closely at the existing condition of things in order to see why it is that our hopes must be kept sober.

The inquiry will have to take a wide sweep, for the whole range of our social and cultural life is involved in it. The main thing to grasp is that we of this generation do really know what it is to live in a disintegrating and inharmonious society. That is not our fault; we are not to blame for having been born at the end of an epoch of history and the beginning of a new one. What would make us culpable would be failure to recognize the fact and to act accordingly.

¹ Reprinted by kind permission of the National Council on Commercial Education, from the Report of their Seventh Annual Conference, 1941.

Another way of stating the fact is to say that we are passing through a great crisis of culture, certainly the greatest for the last 500 years; perhaps the greatest since the decay of the Graeco-Roman society of the ancient world.

Signs of crisis, disharmony, and disintegration are all around us, many of them now written in blood and fire. The roots of the trouble are all in the field of culture, if we take that much misused word in the full range of its meaning. That is, they concern the things that men *value*, the things by which they desire to live and for which, if necessary, they are prepared to die. How shocked we have all been, for instance, to realize that that great group of human values—principles, social attitudes, habits of government, and the rest—which we sum up in the word 'democracy' should be so passionately repudiated over large areas of the world! Who would have thought it? Yet there the stark fact is. No wonder we feel in our bones that this is no merely national war, but much more a war of religion! No wonder that this time we hear so little about King and Country! But what a disastrous error it is to assume that we have to go to Germany or Japan or Italy to find the cause of it all, to imagine that all we have to deal with is just the cussedness of the other fellow! That is the kind of shortsighted view which is taken by those who do not realize how completely they themselves are the slaves of the merely contemporary; the condition of a good many people to-day, I fear, especially those who live from one B.B.C. announcement to the next.

The first step towards salvation is to realize that these things have been coming upon us literally for centuries, and that, in respect to some of them at least, it is this country that has taken the lead. So let us now take a look at ourselves to see how we stand in respect of this great matter of the harmonious marriage of culture and vocation.

At first sight the signs may seem healthy enough. Never was culture so much talked about. Never were so much literature, money, and energy devoted to the propagation of it. But look a little more closely and you may notice some disquieting things. Much of the propagation is the work of those who in some way or other are paid

for it. So, if we are to be honest, we must say bluntly that for them culture is, in part at least, vocational; they get their living by it. There is nothing at all wrong about this so long as we don't deceive ourselves. A developed society needs the services of such propagators and they are rightly paid for their labours. Only it is well to remember that Christianity in its early days was propagated by fishermen and tentmakers, and what we need to look for in a truly healthy society is the culture of the milkman and the religion of the butcher.

We notice, too, that culture, in the sense in which the word is usually current, is very largely a matter of closed *coteries*, with their own journals and means of communication, their own mysterious habits and gestures, and sometimes even a queer occult language of their own. Again, there is nothing wrong in the mere existence of such groups. A well-ordered society needs its guardians of the finer things, its watchmen or *reminders* to prevent it falling below itself and becoming insensitive to the best elements in its own life. They may well be the salt-cellars on the common table.

But when such groups become detached from the main body of the daily activities and interests of men, and even become parasitic upon it; when their members seem excessively anxious that the world should acknowledge and recognize them as the truly cultured people, the priesthood of culture in fact, then something has gone wrong. You now have cultural castes with the Brahmins at the top. This is just what you would expect in a competitive society with an illusory unity where, in reality, everybody is straining after the labels that will give him 'standing' and kudos.

The effects of such division and such false values are much more serious than might appear at first sight. It is as though the salt-cellars had been removed from the tables of the common life and put away in a cupboard where they remained filled with some exotic substance which, whatever else it might be, is no condiment for the ordinary man's diet. Of course those specially qualified people whose business it is, as artists, critics, poets, craftsmen, and the rest, to bring the ordinary activities of men into flower, as it were, must

have their places and occasions of meeting and intercourse where they will, at times, talk a language that we do not understand. But they themselves must remain rooted in the common life, members of it and sharing in it in a more intense and vivid way than most of us are capable of. For it is their business to be sensitive to its more subtle meanings and values, and to find ways of expressing them in symbols of imaginative beauty if they are artists, or in clear analytic language if they are critics or teachers.

Think, for example, of the audience that crowded the Globe Theatre in Shakespeare's day at a performance of one of his plays, or the Athenians who assembled at a festival to witness a tragedy of Aeschylus or Sophocles. What they saw there was just the life they knew raised to a higher power, as it were, and held up to them as in a mirror with all its lights and shades richly intensified. They could feel that behind the most ordinary occurrences the deepest and greatest things in heaven and earth may lie.

This was surely because the leaders and interpreters of culture were just citizen-craftsmen, men like themselves but with unusual powers of vision and execution. Of the same order were the potters, the weavers, the masons, and the workers in metal, wood, and leather, all alike having something vivid and meaningful to *say* about the common life through their craft.

In other words, culture and vocation had not fallen apart so as to make of culture itself only a rather peculiar and somewhat barren kind of vocation.

It is one sign of the disease from which our civilization suffers that with us they *have* tended to fall apart so that vocation is just 'earning a living' and culture a kind of clever commentary either upon life in general or upon new 'stunts' of artistic technique.

So much is this the case that quite serious speakers and writers on education talk as though there were two quite separate kinds of education sharply distinguished from each other, the cultural and the vocational. In some circles this is so much taken as a matter of course that nobody stops to observe what a dark reflection it is upon our whole way of life, or even to ask whether it is really true to the facts even now.

Thus the penalty imposed upon a society not at unity with itself, a society which has not succeeded in making its vocations integral to its culture, is the specialization of culture itself as the technical preserve of the initiated few. It becomes conventionalized, terribly restricted in range and, to use the right word, *snobbish*, for it refuses to recognize as culture anything but its own limited kind. When vocation and culture fall apart you thus tend to get a barren, sophisticated 'appreciationism' on the one hand, out of touch with production, and on the other hand uninspired and mechanical production.

But perhaps the most striking evidence of disharmony is the separation that most of us seem ready to accept between Work and Leisure. About the popular cry of 'Education for Leisure' there is the sound of a death sentence. For what does it mean if not that we are accepting the fatal dualism that is at the root of our trouble? We give up hope of generating human and social satisfactions in work and out of work, and hand it all over to leisure. So life is to be just one long pendulum-swing between Duty and Diversion; dry bread sometimes, butter sometimes, but never good bread and butter. The truth is, of course, that if you truly educate a man and if he lives in a healthy society, you can safely leave him to his leisure. Indeed such a man will often find that his periods of leisure are his periods of hardest and most wholehearted work.

I am sorry to see that this fatal dualism has been given further currency just recently in a new form. A distinguished scholar has just published a little book in which he argues, quite truly, that much of our most effective education in the future will have to be adult education. The things we can learn only when we are grown up are now so numerous and important that we shall have to arrange to learn them at the only possible time.

It is the setting in which the writer places this adult activity that alarms me. He recognizes that we have to earn a living. But then he puts all that aside and concentrates on the use of spare time which is to be devoted to the acquisition of culture. I note the implication in the book that the culture of the university don and the schoolmaster is, if not the only kind, at

least the typical kind. But what I most wish to note is the setting aside of the whole field of Work, and with it evasion of the whole problem. Dons and schoolmasters ought to be happy people since, for them, work and leisure are so closely akin and they are not torn and distracted by the problem of creating a single personal life out of sharply conflicting elements. But millions of other workers are so torn and distracted. They are tied, it seems irrevocably, to the pendulum: dull duty here, exciting diversion there. Apparently there is no escape. Is it surprising that the government of mankind should now present such problems?

So we are back where we were, with the whole vast problem of a disordered society and an unrelated culture. Is it not high time that we faced the real task? It can be stated quite simply. It is the task of so ordering Work that a man can remain fully alive in it, and, what is more, contributing to culture *through his work*. We are lost if our contribution is to be made only in the hours we can snatch from slavery.

This means nothing less than a profound change in our conceptions of culture. It has to be brought back into the whole life of society, into work as well as into leisure, and not left as the exotic preserve of the coteries. We shall keep the fine things we have, our Shakespeare, our music, our philosophy. But we shall also develop new fine things out of our internal combustion engines, our streamlined machines, our reinforced concrete, our electrical equipment, our wireless, our tractor agriculture, and all the rest of the distinctively modern things. In a word, we shall restore the broken unity in the only possible way, by integrating our culture with the actual vocations by which men live. How greatly does our inherited culture presuppose the old agricultural vocations and how little the great new industrial ones!

When we have done this the craftsman, including many new kinds of craftsman, will become the artist, the citizen-artist, and the artist the citizen-craftsman. And we shall understand that a living and genuine modern culture fulfils itself in forms not all like that of the don and the schoolmaster.

There are welcome signs that this great revolutionary process is already well started. A good test

of its reality will be found in the manner in which we rebuild our towns and industry after the war.

What we have now to do is to consider ways in which the process of re-unifying Culture and Vocation, already well begun, can be guided and accelerated. Education in the formal sense can never do it alone. It can do only as much as society permits it to do and then never the whole job. So let us take separately the two parts of the process—

(I) The process of social and cultural change as a whole.

(II) The specific contribution of education.

(I) I wish to insist that nothing will serve now short of a radical reconsideration of all the ruling values of our society, with a frank relating of our notions of culture to the daily realities by which men live. This is not really a matter of choice, since the alternative is disaster. And we may as well recognize that what is involved is a revolution probably greater in its sweep than that which came with the Renaissance.

Perhaps most important of all is the need to remember that no man can know all the truth about a great human movement while he himself is in the midst of it. So we must expect some bewilderment and a demand now and again to accommodate ourselves to things new and strange and even unpalatable. But we can at least watch the signs, be alive to significant 'hunches' on our own part, and here and there take some practical step to bring the vocational realities and the cultural flowering closer.

Most of all we can follow a piece of wise advice and clear our minds of *cant*. Probably there was never a time in history more favourable than this to cant of every kind. It is both pervading and insidious and its happiest hunting ground is surely this field of culture.

As for the signs themselves, we can see them everywhere if we have eyes. The shifts of social and political power towards those who are vocationally important; the tendency to dethrone finance and to exalt skilled technique; the increasing emphasis everywhere on *training* for a job with care that the training shall not be narrow or mechanical but wide-minded and intelligent with due regard to the larger social bearings of the job; the changing structure of industry, especially with regard to

management; the new alertness of the universities to the place of the trained mind and skilled technique in every department of the common life; the growing industrialization (as we might call it) of popular amusement and diversion—a thing inevitable and no occasion for the moanings of a false 'culture' if we know what to do about it; the changing valuations of different kinds of vocation in the community itself; the growth in place of the old 'folk' culture (songs and rhymes and dances and tales) of a new popular culture that takes many strange forms; these are only a few of the many indications of what is going on. Watch them, try to understand what they mean and whither they are tending, and if you can do so wisely, try a little to guide and inspire them. That surely is one of the objects of the new Youth Service that we are all trying to create just now.

The worst possible course is to stand pat on a conception of culture that belongs to a social and vocational order now passing away, and to weep crocodile tears of denunciation and despair over strange new manifestations that you will not take the trouble to understand. Plenty of our would-be leaders seem ready enough to do that; not a very courageous or imaginative role. I am prepared to trust a people that has not been educated out of all adventurousness not to let go those things in our inherited culture which ought to be independent of the changes of time, our Shakespeare, our classical inheritance, our Christianity, our poetic spirit. But even these things will have to undergo new readings, as it were, if they are to remain vital at all. Even the English countryside, of the spoiling of which we hear so much, is largely the creation of men in the historic past. It changed as they adapted it to their changing needs and it will go on changing. I see nothing to lament in that so long as the process is carried on with an eye to beauty and shapeliness and a proper sense of the fitness of things. That is the point; it is just the 'fitness of things' which changes, and it is precisely the sense of that, playing upon man's necessary readaptation to circumstance, that gives rise to new forms and enrichments of culture. So let us remain sensitive and courageous and not range

ourselves on the side of those curious people who, in the name of culture, would stop its growth process altogether. Not much more can be said here about an aspect of our subject which, though so vast and momentous, is yet so new and so ill-defined. We must be content for the present to watch and explore, and above all things to keep ourselves receptive and courageous.

(II) I turn now to the part that formal education can play, reminding you that what it can do is only a part. Obviously there are two modes in which it can function in this matter. First, in what it is usual to call 'general' education it can encourage the adventurous temper of mind that is ready to admit at least the possibility that we shall have to accommodate ourselves to changed ways of thought and life, to new readings of an old culture, and to strange forms of culture that are new almost entirely. While encouraging this temper, 'general' education will also fortify it with relevant knowledge about man and Nature and with command of the more vital techniques, especially those of mathematics and science. It will do all this without neglecting the deeper springs and the richer deposits of the cultural inheritance. So a revitalized teaching of history and literature will have its place.

Secondly, with this education in adventurousness and general command of resources as its background, the more strictly vocational training follows. This must not be thought of as a spearhead of one material cunningly fitted to a shaft of quite another material, but as the drawing out of the more general education into a sharpened vocational focus.

I take up this point again later. Here let me clear the ground by disposing of one or two false ways of conceiving the relation of the vocational to the cultural in education.

The first we will call the way of the Pantomime Fairy. It consists essentially in taking a somewhat heavy-footed vocational training and then fitting to it, quite artificially, a pair of light cultural wings. Every one knows that the wings are there only as a decorative symbol. Nobody expects the creature to fly, for there is nothing organic about its wings.

This is no unfair picture of those pathetic attempts, by plastering on

a little formal English or literature, to introduce into the vocational course the so-called 'cultural element'. The Pantomime Fairy is no unjust symbol of such futility.

The second way we will call the way of the Philistine. Really it is no way at all, for it consists in rejecting the claims of culture altogether and being what is called 'practical'. We need not waste time over it, for there is no one so blind, even to his own interests, as the man who insists on being 'practical' in this desperately limited sense.

The third false way is a little more insidious. We may call it the Populist way. It does not reject culture, but it accepts uncritically, and perhaps a little cravenly, the crude, unrefined standards of the masses. The danger is not so great yet with us as it is in some other lands. But it is here and it is increasing, and conditions are likely still further to encourage it. Let us remember that in appreciation of the finer things we shall do well to accept some guidance from those who have trained themselves in the finer preceptions. The untutored standards of the average man are really not good enough, and the great mass of men, with training and guidance, are able to raise their standards and increase the quality of their enjoyment in proportion.

My complaint, you will remember, is not that we have no need of the critics and the people of trained cultural insight and perception, but that they tend in our time to apply their powers over too narrow a range and upon material some of which has lost its significance.

It is a matter of some importance that the men and women who are in responsible charge of the various forms of vocational education should themselves be cultivated people. Technical competence should not excuse crudity. Indeed, it may well be robbed of proper effect by it.

By contrast with these false conceptions let us now take note of the truer conditions which any system of preparation for vocation ought to fulfil in a society like ours.

First I should place *Integrity*. I mean by that an education which is all of a piece, transcending and absorbing into itself the distinction between the vocational and the cultural. I repeat once more that you cannot hope to achieve this unless vocation and culture are fully integrated in society as a whole.

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The supreme issue lies there all the time. You cannot achieve it just by imagining a school as an oasis of harmony and unity in a desert of disharmony and conflict. The school has indeed its part to play. It will have to take risks and even hard knocks, for if it knows its business it will be pioneering ahead of the general social and cultural front. But it can do little enough apart from the main body.

Next I should stress *Understanding*, by which I mean the marriage of skilled technique with the larger intelligence. The intelligence, that is, which belongs to the job itself. One of the obvious ways of extracting cultural value from a practical vocation is the following up of its scientific implications, for instance. There is no knowing to what discoveries and personal satisfactions this may lead, and I am sure you would find in the factories as well as in the technical schools many who are realizing these satisfactions. We cannot have too much stimulus to this kind of intelligent curiosity even in the humbler occupations, for it is one of the more fruitful roots of culture.

Thirdly comes *Social Significance*. I mean by this some understanding of the relation of one's job to the whole life and needs of society. Just as the pursuit of curiosity about the technical principles of one's job may lead on into physical and mathematical science, so the pursuit of curiosity about its social meaning and value leads on into social and economic science and perhaps into history. In the old simple economy of the village or small town where the job you were on was being done to the order of the man next door, social significance of your work was obvious enough. But nowadays a right appreciation of it is a very complex affair and may carry you to the ends of the earth. Here again is a fruitful root of culture. Even the dull jobs may be susceptible of such illumination if we seize the educational opportunity in the right way. But it will mean well-aimed stimulus and wisely-planned teaching.

Finally there is *Imaginative Play*. Where this is strongly present the line between Work and Leisure disappears, as it does with the great inventors, for instance. The job sparkles, as it were, with imaginative possibilities, and the worker is being continually touched off on

fresh trains of thought and speculation. If it is said that the atmosphere of modern work and production is unfavourable to this free creative temper, that is just one of the most damning criticisms. For it is a confession of dehumanizing effect that some of the liveliest and most human things about a man are shut off and damped down in the course of productive activity.

I stress, then, these four outstanding traits or features of what I take to be a healthy vocational education, designed to produce not only skilled competence but the forms of culture related to such competence. Integrity, Technical Understanding, Social Significance, and Imaginative Play—there they are. Let me once more repeat that they are fully realizable only in a society where a man feels he can go all out because his society is all of a piece with a culture that is what it ought to be—the rich human flowering of the vocations that sustain it. On the contrary, you have the essence of slavery, by whatever name you choose to call it, in any society where the thing that passes for culture is the prerogative of the few, and the vocations by which society lives are the burden of the many. The first characteristic, however, of the culture of a free people is that it is, in principle, universally *shareable*.

If you think that what is generally regarded as culture to-day satisfies this test, I have nothing more to say. But if not, then I think you will agree with the main argument of this paper that the restoration of the broken unity between culture and vocation is one way of stating the main task that is imposed on our social and educational policy in the years to come.

I have not thought it necessary to go into details of educational arrangements, types of school, and what not. For we shall see our way clear in the details of practice and administration only when we have set our general course right towards the true social and educational goal. Much has yet to happen in English society and in English notions of social ends and ruling values before that can be achieved. But strain and suffering are making us all more teachable, and there is good hope now that we shall at least be agreed about the nature of the disease. From that to vigorous measures of cure is only a minor step.

What Children Say About War and Death¹

Dorothy Burlingham and Anna Freud

Abstract from the XXth and XXlst Monthly Reports of the Hampstead Nurseries

AFTER three years of war the idea of fighting, killing and bombing has ceased to be surprising or extraordinary; the existence of these activities is now accepted by children as an essential part of their picture of the world. There are still some little ones to whom war means nothing; for example, Hilde (3½), who looks up into the sky and says: 'Look at the nice aeroplane, I'd like to have it for Christmas.' But even at this age such lack of understanding is exceptional. David (3½) complained when the alert was given in the last daylight raid: 'The sirens are eating me up.' The remark shows his sensitiveness to the sound which for many adults too holds something of the threat contained in the howling of a wild animal.

Memory of Past Experiences

Whenever new alarms occur the older children now come out with memories of past experiences. Tim (6) related one evening: 'After the last war there was one street where my aunt lived and there were no houses left, all are bombed, only the house of my aunt is left. And now they are building new houses.' The term 'after the last war' means in the children's language the period of the blitz.

Janet (5) also likes to speak about her past experiences. She said: 'Once a bomb dropped next to our house and we had no shelter. So we all had to lie on top of each other. First was my little sister, then me, then my mummy and daddy. I did not like it at all.' Then she continued smiling: 'Do you remember the first night here when we were all so noisy that the Germans dropped a bomb on our house? But it was very far away. Do you know it still?' Janet's first part of that story is probably a correct report of what had happened to her nearly two years ago, when she and her family had their house destroyed above them. The second part of the story contains a mixture of real and imaginary elements of what happened last year. A stick of bombs was actually dropped not on, but

in the neighbourhood of the Country House, and not on the first night, but a little more than a week after the arrival of the children there. This is a good example of a child's interpretation of such a happening: in Janet's mind the bomb was dropped as punishment because the children were too noisy. Her smile and the contradiction in the story itself ('on our house—very far away') prove that Janet is herself well aware of her own additions to the truth. She herself had at the time commented with evident relief after the raid was over: 'It was a kind German; he did not drop the bomb on our house.' Though this sounds like a rather alarming new conception of kindness (the dropping of bombs only on other people's houses) it means to Janet something completely different: the German bomber had, in her conception, behaved as she had often known her parents to behave; he had threatened punishment, had frightened her, but had in the end not carried out the threat.¹

Reaction to Recent Raids

The Country House had one night full of excitement recently. A German aeroplane dropped bombs in the neighbourhood and was chased by British fighters. The children heard the noise of bombs which appears to be much more frightening in the open country than in London. There were flares and guns; all the younger children slept through the noise, but most of the older ones were awake and anxious and needed soothing. This night raid produced an anxiety attack in John (6½). This child was mentioned in our Annual Report (see *New Era*, April-May issue, page 70) as a typical example of anxiousness in a child due to the nervousness of the mother. His mother had developed states of anxiety during the raids, had never gone to bed while an alert lasted, had stood at the door trembling and insisted on the child's not sleeping either.

¹ Janet is always the most explicit, and it was she who said the other day: 'Whenever I think, I think with my head, isn't it funny?'

John, then 5 years old, had to get dressed, to hold her hand and to stand next to her. At the time he developed extreme nervousness and bed-wetting. He had quickly improved after separation from his mother and had not shown any unusual behaviour in raids. Now after an interval of more than 18 months, he has attacks of anxiety which definitely resemble those of his mother in all details.

During this last raid he woke up, was frightened, trembled and looked very pale. He said: 'I don't like bombs, why do they drop bombs?' 'Where are all the other children?' He was taken out of bed and shown the children. 'Where is Irene? Is Bertie in his bed? Is Georgie asleep? I want to see him.' When back in bed, he suddenly whispered, 'Is Tim still alive?' When asked why he worried about him, John said: 'I saw his face.' (He meant that he imagined seeing his face; Tim was not in the room in reality.) He continued to ask: 'Is Sophie in the kitchen?' After the all-clear he still wanted to be told what was going on outside. When he learned that British fighters had been hunting a German plane and had probably got him, he was not relieved. His worries transferred themselves to the German pilot. 'I would not like to see a dead man, would you?' When told that the German airman might have been taken prisoner and not killed, he protested: 'He is not an airman, he is a Ger-man.' (For John probably two very different kinds of men, one good, one bad, and not to be confused with one another.) He demanded to have his hand held and needed much comfort and soothing before he found sleep again. We know that John's mother in her attacks of anxiety has fears of her own death. Though we have no direct evidence of it, John's behaviour makes it very likely that she also expressed vivid anxiety concerning the various members of her family, especially her grown-up sons serving in the Army. She may see their faces in her attacks as John sees Tim's.

¹ The Authors send monthly statements about their work to the American organisation to whose generosity their nurseries owe their past and present existence. The Hampstead Nurseries are one of the 40 projects of the Foster Parents' Plan for War Children, Inc.

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The children vary a great deal in their reactions after such alarming night experiences. Some regain their high spirits remarkably quickly and appear, if anything, more unconcerned than before. They are usually those who feel things very deeply but succeed in denying their discomfort after a short time. Others may remain subdued and thoughtful for a longer time. After the night described above, for instance, all the bigger children talked about the attack on their way to school. Only Katrina (8) skipped along happily in front of the others and related a conversation she had just had with an old gentleman whom the children meet every morning. 'He said, "Lovely morning", and I told him, "School is nice again."' Katrina reported this and ran off again. Mary (10), the eldest girl of the house, shook her head moodily at such gaiety. 'I do think Katrina forgets there's a war on,' she said.

War a Fight between Good and Evil

An endless subject for talk which never fails to excite the imagination of the bigger children is Hitler's badness. The figure of Hitler is vivid to them not as that of a powerful enemy but as the incarnation of evil, *i.e.* a new edition of the devil. They never talk about the British fighting against the Germans but of a conflict between God and Hitler. They are at the age when their own conflicts between good and bad are very vivid to them, when at one moment they are completely 'bad' and at the next swing over to 'goodness' and intolerance of the small misdeeds of the younger children. These inner conflicts form the basis of their interest in world affairs. Katrina (8) had a restless evening and started a long conversation before falling asleep. She said: 'Teacher says there are angels, and once when we were in an air raid shelter the Germans dropped bombs on us and we were very frightened. There was a lady in the shelter, and she said there is a man sitting in heaven, and he puts his arms out and he hides the people so that the Germans cannot bomb us. It is God. No German can do anything to us. Who made God? Who made everything? How did everything start?' She settled down to sleep, but after a few

minutes she was heard to laugh quietly to herself and then she whispered: 'Could God get wicked one day? Wouldn't it be funny if God got wicked one day and Hitler good?' It is easy to see that her own thoughts about God come from another source and have little or nothing in common with the teaching she receives in school and the religious consolation heard in the shelter.

John (6½) worries about the same problems. After a series of evenings when the group of school children had disturbed the younger ones with their noise he asked: 'Why are we naughty? Who tells us to be naughty?' and then smiling: 'God tells us to be naughty!' When somebody answered that this surely could not be so, John said promptly: 'But he made the Germans! Why did he make them nasty Germans?'

The same question of responsibility, this time not for the naughtiness of the children but for the outbreak of the war, is repeated in another conversation between Tim and Katrina. Tim said: 'I think God said to Hitler that there should be a war.' Katrina answered very quickly and angrily: 'Oh! No, Tim.' Tim noticed that he had said the wrong thing, was frightened, and asked Katrina very humbly: 'What did he say then?'

The same idea of God being responsible for everybody, good or bad, was reflected in another conversation between Mary (10), Peggy (8) and Katrina (8). They asked: 'Who will God help to win the war, Hitler or us?' Before anyone else could answer, Katrina said: 'God will help both, Hitler and us, because he likes all people.'

On the other hand, this idea of bad people being liked is insupportable to other children. When Marion (6½), in a happy mood on the way home from school, sang a little song of her own: 'I like my Georgie and I like my Alice and I like everybody, everybody is good!' Janet interrupted her: 'You don't like everybody, you don't like Hitler.' Marion this time was too happy to argue it out. She said simply: 'But Hitler is so far away,' which meant that at that moment her mind was not troubled by the dangers of badness.

Ideas About Death¹

UNDER normal conditions young children have no real conception of death. 'To be dead' is for the young child synonymous with being 'gone'; the idea does not contain anything about life being ended. In this respect our children differ considerably from children of normal times. Many children have been in close contact with death at a very early age, especially those who have lost their fathers through enemy action. In one way this has ripened their understanding and lifted it to a stage beyond their years; in another way their normal infantile lack of understanding of death stands out in sharp contrast to this familiarity with it. At one moment they seem to know all about it and then again they puzzle about the problem, they deny the existence of death and try to undo its consequences with the help of their phantasies.

Cruelty and Pity

We have one child, Jane (4), who is a great killer herself. She steps on worms and insects whenever she gets the chance, and will sometimes kill quite a number of them if not prevented. At other times she is full of sympathy for animals and for inanimate objects which, as she imagines, have to die.

She said 'Poor piggy' when she learned for the first time that ham comes from the pig and that, as her friend Harry (4) explained, the pig has to be 'deaded' for the purpose. Another time, playing with a box of matches, she stroked them carefully with her fingers, saying 'poor little matches' over and over again. When asked why she felt so sorry for them, she said: "cause they must die so quick."

This double attitude is perfectly

normal for her age, when cruelty is just in the process of being changed over into pity. Both reactions are still available to the child alternately. With Jane it will probably not be long before her desire to kill is relegated to the unconscious and strong reactions of pity are substituted for it in the upper layers of her mind.

Childish Death Wishes

Jane, who is usually extremely fond of her mother, said when her mother smacked her: 'I am going to push you under a bus and you'll be all dead and you won't come back, and it doesn't matter, I've still got my Ilsa' (her teacher in the nursery). In the same way Susan (4½) said to Jane in a quarrel: 'I'll kill you. Right now and you won't come back for a long, long time. They'll keep you in hospital.' Or Teddy (5), 'My daddy is going to bring me a big gun next time he comes on leave. I won't shoot you! I'll shoot Dick (2½)'. ('Why Dick?') 'Because he bites and kicks and takes the toys I want. When he is killed I'll keep him dead a long time, then I'll send him to the hospital to be mended much later; when he comes back perhaps he won't bite any more.' These death wishes, serious as they sound, are of the infantile type, where the idea of coming back to life is closely linked with the idea of death. Susan and Teddy kill for limited periods only; death is a punishment for their enemies something like being sent out of the room for a short time. The child is momentarily angry with his mother or his playmate, so he kills them. But his anger is of short duration and therefore the loved person is brought back to life.

Return of Dead Parents

The same idea of the return of the dead acquires a different aspect in those cases where not the child's wish but actually some outside agency has killed a loved person. All our war orphans are firmly convinced that their dead fathers will return at the end of the war, and they extend this belief from their own fathers to all other people about whose death they hear.

The child who is most concerned about the problems of life and death is Bertie (5½).² He is the only one among our children who lost both father and mother within a short time. His father was killed in the raids of November, 1940, and his mother, who developed an acute psychosis as a result of the shock, was certified and sent to an asylum four weeks later. It took Bertie a long time to admit that his father was dead. When he did so finally, his thoughts began to busy themselves with the idea of his return, with general theories about death and rebirth and his own possible part in them.

At times he can discuss the subject simply and sensibly, as, for instance, in the following conversation with a grown-up. He said: 'Will you be old very soon?' ('Yes, I suppose so.') 'Will you fall down dead then?' ('Yes, I think so.') 'Will I fall down dead very soon?' ('No, not yet. You are very much younger. Are you afraid of it?') 'Yes, I am, and my daddy fell down dead and my mummy is in hospital.'

Another time he flew into a rage because a helper had momentarily mistaken him for another, younger child. He refused to joke about it

¹ Taken from Report XXI.

² A much fuller account of Bertie's experiences occurs in an earlier report of the Hampstead Nurseries, and in shortened form in the April-May issue of *The New Era*, Vol. 23, p. 80.

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and screamed. 'No, I am not Harvey, I am not Patrick' (both smaller boys) 'and I see you going littler and littler and your feet are going to be littler and littler.' The implication evidently is that big people become smaller and smaller until they die. To be mistaken for a smaller child sounds to him like being threatened with death.

Another time he called late in the evening from his bed for the nursery superintendent to whom he is greatly attached. He said: 'I want to tell you something. When my old father was killed I got another one and (hesitatingly) he is in London. Do people never come back if they are killed, did nobody come back from heaven?' ('I don't know anybody who came back.') 'Can nobody see God? So if God would come to us, nobody would know him and they would all fight him.' He pondered for a while and continued: 'Why can't all the killed daddies come back and be little babies and come to the mummies again?'

Bertie's fear that people will not know God when they meet him only appears to deal with a religious subject. In reality he fears that he himself will not know his own father on his return. An old hostility against his father, which has long since been overlaid by his love and mourning for him, appears in consciousness in this manner.

The idea of rebirth contained in the same phantasy stands in contrast with other simpler phantasies

of reparation, where thoughts of God and childlike conceptions of wartime restrictions are mixed up with each other. He said one evening in his bed: 'God can make my daddy alive again, can't he? Why can't God put people together again if they have been killed and send them down from heaven? I know why! Because he hasn't got the things together, all the stuff.'

And after a little while: 'You see, after the war God will have everything again; we have to wait till after the war, then God can put people together again.'

Frequently Bertie himself assumes the rôle of rescuer. He said, for instance, when talking about his future: 'I am going to be a fire-engine driver when I am grown up. I will put the fires out and rescue the people. If they are dead I will make them alive again and take them quick to the doctor.'

Another conversation shows that he imagines the process of coming back to life as a gradual recovery of all the faculties. He had been visited by an aunt who evidently discussed his family history in front of him with other parents. When the parents' bus was gone Tim (6) told the superintendent in great excitement: 'You know, Bertie's father is not dead, he only cannot move, but he can turn his eyes already.' A moment later Bertie rushed into the room: 'My auntie said my daddy is alive, he only cannot move, but he turns his eyes

and will perhaps be better at Christmas.' When told that this could hardly be true, he threw himself on the floor and covered his ears with his hands: 'I don't want to listen to you, I don't believe you.' In all probability he purposely mistook bits of information about the catatonic state of his mother and applied them to his father.

Acceptance of the father's death is especially difficult for those children whose mothers, because of their own personal grief, do everything to keep the child's phantasies alive. The children know the truth and are at the same time not allowed to know it. They resent it that their mothers lie to them, but at the same time they are only too glad to find support for their ideas of wish-fulfilment. Susan, whose father was killed in the London blitz, said when she was four: 'My father has deaded, he has gone far away to Scotland, he will come back, much later when I am quite big.' At another time: 'My father is in the Army now, my mother says he is not dead any more. The Army is far away.' Again, at another time: 'My daddy is in the Navy now, he can't come back, there is too much water.' And then, another time, triumphantly: 'My daddy is coming Sunday. Yes, yes, he is coming Sunday. You will see, he'll bring me the biggest bit of chocolate you've ever seen.'

The last instance shows how the missing father is slowly turned into

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The Social Aims of Post-War European Education

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Education Fellowship (International
Headquarters)

Speakers:

Mr. B. S. DRZEWIESKI
(Polish Secretary, N.E.F.)

Mr. W. B. CURRY
(Headmaster, Dartington Hall)

Discussion Leader:

Mr. JOHN G. LANG
(University College, Swansea)

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an ideal figure who is the bringer of everything good. This development is most strongly in evidence in little Peter, whose father also was killed in an air raid. He said: 'My daddy is killed. Yes, Anne says so.' (Anne is his bigger sister.) 'He can't come. I want him to come. My daddy is big, he can work and he can do *everything*.' With Peter phantasies frequently turn into confabulations. He says: 'I have seen my daddy in the street, he has a nice uniform. Yes, yes, it was him; mummy says he'll come back.' Another time: 'Daddy is taking me to the Zoo to-day.' ('How do you know?') 'He told me last night, he comes every night and sits on my bed and talks to me.' The same conflict between wish-fulfilment and reality is lifted to a more conscious level with Peter's sister Anne (5½), who said to one of the nurses: 'My daddy is in the Army now and he will bring me lots of sweets when he comes back.' (Then in the same breath into her ear): 'No, it's not true, my daddy is dead, and he's not going to come.'

It is only natural that these children who have met death in its most violent form can conceive of no other way of dying than by violence. To our great sorrow the head of the kitchen in our

Babies' Home died in hospital some weeks after a sudden operation. She had been a great friend of the older children, who were told of her death. Anne's instantaneous response was: 'Who killed her?' When told that she had not been killed, she explained the matter for herself very carefully. She said: 'She died because she was very ill, she couldn't eat any more, and she got weaker every day; then her heart stopped beating, and then one is dead. My heart won't stop. I thought a bomb or fire bomb killed her. Like my daddy. We went all over the house where he was, but we did not find him.'

Acceptance of Death

In contrast to these fantastic elaborations, we are surprised to find at other times that these same children use the thought of death in a realistic manner, and connect it with the ordinary facts of their everyday life. Susan (4½), for instance, had overheard that her favourite nurse was not feeling too well after an illness and had been warned not to lift heavy weights. She caught her disobeying the doctor's orders and lifting children into their shelter beds. Susan turned on her in a very grown-up manner and said: 'Don't lift children, do you want to go to

hospital? They can get into bed with the steps and you don't get ill. People die in hospital. Elsa didn't come back; she was in a bed there, and then she died, and I cannot see her any more. My daddy can't come on Sunday.'

Susan is quite ready to make friends with others on the basis of her loss. She said, again to her favourite nurse: 'When is my daddy coming?' ('He cannot come, you know he died and people who are dead don't come back, but we can think of them a lot and remember how nice they were.') 'Yes, let's think of daddy; he was nice, very nice, I'll tell you about him every day. Does your daddy come on Sundays?' ('No, my daddy has died too. He cannot come.') 'That's good, so I have no daddy, and you have no daddy, and Anne and Michael and Harry. Why has Sally got one?' She had suddenly reversed reality again for her own comfort. It had become normal to have no father, and having one was turned into an exception.

Again it is little Janet (5½), who remains practical and level-headed even in these complicated and worrying matters. She said: 'Rosie' (her little friend) 'might die to-morrow. Perhaps all the people will die to-morrow. But I don't think God wants us all at once.'

Marxist-Leninist Library. (Lawrence & Wishart.)

The events of the last twenty-five years have drawn increasing attention to the system of thought known as Marxism. It has served to inspire and direct the activities of one of the great states of the modern world, one whose constructive economic and military achievements have roused universal admiration. That fact alone would suffice to give it importance, but, in addition, many people have learned that it offers coherent interpretations of social and political developments which puzzle orthodox economists and historians. Often, these interpretations are incomplete and not entirely satisfactory: they are concerned more with large-scale, massive developments than with smaller and localized phenomena which matter deeply to individuals. Yet one sees, at any rate, that a real attempt is being made to come to grips with events rather than to skate gracefully around difficulties while taking refuge in empty generalizations. Unfortunately those whose interest in Marxism has been aroused often rest content with a cursory reading of some brief popular outline. This is true both of sym-

Book Reviews

pathizers and opponents: people seem more concerned to defend or attack than to understand. Yet in a system so complex and so closely woven, one, moreover, which touches everybody's interests, the original works should most certainly be read with the care and attention they call for and deserve.

Messrs. Lawrence and Wishart have therefore performed a valuable service by publishing reprints and translations of many of the fundamental writings by Marx, Engels, Lenin, Plekhanov, Lozovski, Stalin. The books are clearly printed on good paper, and quite attractively and strongly bound. They are remarkably inexpensive: one may well be grateful nowadays for a book of 400 and 500 pages at five or six shillings.

Some twenty volumes have been issued so far. Among them one finds such classics as the *Anti-Dühring* (5/-) in which Engels demolished, in a lively and amusing manner, the fantasies of a pretentious metaphysician and gave an excellent introduction to Historical Materialism. Then there is the famous *Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State* (3/6),

which, though it obviously needs correcting in the light of more recent research, yet deserves the attention of sociologists and historians. Scientists would find it profitable and interesting to read *Dialectics of Nature* (6/-), a book to which J. B. S. Haldane has contributed an Introduction and some illuminating notes. Those with political interests would find that *Germany: Revolution and Counter-Revolution* (2/6) helps to explain what has happened in that country since 1848. And, without any doubt, everyone would find profoundly interesting material in the *Selected Correspondence of Marx and Engels* (5/-). Here a mass of political, scientific, economic and philosophical problems are freely discussed in intimate language. One comes across a fascinating discussion on obscure topics in the history of science; on the next page one finds reflections on the Franco-Prussian war, on the next a description of advances in agricultural practice, and so on. Everywhere there are caustic and penetrating remarks on the great personalities of the Victorian age.

It is obviously impossible here to attempt a proper valuation and critique of all this—indeed, it would be presumptuous. But one may

attempt to record a few general impressions. First, one comes away filled with admiration at the encyclopedic knowledge displayed both by Marx and by Engels, and at the sweep and profundity of their thought. They must have been among the best educated men of their age. They move with ease and freedom in all fields of knowledge and, where one's own special knowledge makes one critical, one notes with pleasure that they never say a stupid thing. Whatever one's political standpoint may be, contact with such fresh, vigorous and generous minds is refreshing.

Secondly, one is constantly astonished at the modernity of the outlook displayed. One feels astounded that such things were being said and written 80 or 100 years ago. This does not, of course, mean that Marx and Engels give one the feeling that they themselves considered they were dealing with absolute truth. On the contrary, it is clear that their thought was constantly changing and being modified: were they still alive now, they would speak in a very different way.

Thirdly, one becomes more and more convinced that both Marx and Engels have been widely misunderstood and misrepresented. A single quotation will suffice to illustrate what I mean: 'We are ourselves partly to blame for the fact that younger writers sometimes lay more stress on the economic side than is due to it. We had to emphasize this main principle in opposition to our adversaries, who denied it, and we had not always the time, the place or the opportunity to allow the other elements involved in the interaction to come into their rights . . . Unfortunately, however, it happens only too often that people think they have fully understood a theory and can apply it without more ado from the moment they have mastered its main principles, and those even not always correctly. And we cannot exempt many of the more recent "Marxists" from this reproach, for the most wonderful rubbish has been produced from this quarter too.'

One last reflection. Do books like these matter to educationists and teachers? Yes, because few of us are entirely satisfied with the educational system within which we work and many of us wish to change it. But we have learned that we cannot bring about the changes we desire unless we understand the forces which shape and direct social phenomena, including educational systems. Though many of us—myself, for instance—cannot accept in their entirety the views of Marx and Engels, it is yet certain that we can learn much from them and thereby become more effective reformers.

J. A. L.

**Young Children in War-time,
in a Residential War Nursery.
By Dorothy Burlingham and Anna
Freud. (pp. 81. 1/6.) London:
George Allen and Unwin for The
New Era.**

Those who have had the privilege of knowing the Hampstead War Nurseries and of reading their monthly reports will not be surprised at the extraordinary achievement represented by this little book. In two respects Mrs. Burlingham and Miss Freud have achieved the apparently impossible: they have, in the face of many and great difficulties, succeeded in establishing a group of war nurseries that in all save premises provide a model for peace-time. They have also, in less than 81 pages, presented the psychology of early childhood so simply that none may fail to understand, and yet with a depth of wisdom from which all should learn. Throughout there is a lucidity of thought and expression, directness of purpose, and rich development of theme which make it hard to put down the book before the last chapter, and yet when the conclusion is reached one turns back inevitably to study the whole again.

The basis of work in the nurseries is stated in the foreword: 'that the care and education of young children should not take second place in war-time.' The early years of life are decisive, not only for physical but also for mental development. 'Whenever certain essential needs are not fulfilled, lasting psychological malformations will be the consequence; these essential elements are the need for personal attachment, for emotional stability, and for permanency of educational influence.' It is clear therefore that with the break-up of family life consequent upon war conditions young children require even more careful attention to their emotional necessities than before; if such care is not provided, we shall be faced with a post-war generation that is mentally distorted.

The authors point out that in the nursery years 'destructive and aggressive impulses are still at work in children in a manner in which they only recur in grown-up life when they are let loose for the purposes of war'. The seeds of future wars are already extant in the nursery, but 'if education is handled intelligently the main part of these aggressive impulses will be directed away from their primitive aim of doing harm, . . . and will be used to fight the difficulties of the outside world, to accomplish tasks of all kinds.' Superficial observers have remarked that children seem little affected by the horrors of war; the real danger 'lies in the fact that the destruction raging in the outside world may meet the very real aggressiveness

which rages in the inside of the child', and so thwart the education which should divert this hostile energy into constructive channels. Here is a real explanation of the anti-social behaviour observed alike in child refugees during the Spanish war and in evacuee children from the bombed cities of Britain.

One of the most valuable sections of this book is that devoted to the development and fate of the mother-child relationship, with special reference to the effects of separation at various stages. To the little child at home, the harsh wind of experience is tempered by his mother's natural over-estimation of him and by her protective possessiveness. 'It is this primitive possessiveness and over-estimation which make it possible for mothers to stand the strain of work for their children without feeling abused', but others—unless they challenge the mother's position by themselves emotionally adopting the children—must take an objective view of children not their own, and consequently have no illusions as to their nuisance-value. In separating mother and child these observations have to be taken into account, as well as the child's real love for his mother. 'That the shock of parting is really serious' is proved by various reactions, among them the very fact that some little children fail to recognize their mothers after a comparatively short period. 'The mothers themselves realise that that this lack of recognition is not due to any limitation of memory as such. The same child who looks at his mother with stony indifference, as if she were a complete stranger, will have no difficulty in recognising lifeless objects that have belonged to his past', such as the furniture of his home. The failure of his mother to satisfy his need for her has become too painful to be tolerated in consciousness, so that memory is blotted out, as in 'shell-shocked' soldiers the memory of intolerable situations also disappeared. The authors point out that 'every step in early education is closely connected with one of the phases of the child's attachment to some living object'; if these relationships fail him, his mental and social development must suffer accordingly. The description given of compensatory outlets in small children illumines many of their behaviour problems, and much else. There is indeed in this very small book more that is vital to the understanding of children than in many large volumes.

Theodora Alcock

For Children—recommended

Bambi, Felix Salten, Cape, 5/-. *Mystery of the Bronze Frog*, Dorothy Lovell, Cape, 5/-. *Sailor in the Sun*, Robb White, Bodley Head, 7/6. *The Boy who was Afraid*, Armstrong Sperry, Bodley Head, 6/-.

ENGLISH NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Bulletin No. 5
December 1942

H. G. STEAD, Organizing Secretary,
St. Ermyn's, Ashover, Derbyshire

The Bedford Conference seems a long way back now, but its results last, and it has added to the strength and the effectiveness of the English New Education Fellowship. I am grateful to all those who have written so appreciatively about the Conference and also to those who had made suggestions which it is hoped will bear fruit on a later occasion. It is encouraging to hear the Conference referred to in glowing terms by speakers at meetings; through it, the English Fellowship is beginning to be recognized as representative of progressive educational thought and action in the country. There is a hard struggle ahead if we are to get the new Bill towards which we have directed our efforts. To get just a little more nursery education, an extra year at school, and some day-continuation schools is not enough. The whole purpose of education must be re-orientated if it is to provide citizens capable of developing and sustaining a democratically organized community. One of the real tests will be the age at which the pre-adult year is to be taken and the content of the education given in it. If it is taken at 16 plus (as many are now advocating) and may so be nothing more than pre-military and technical training, then it will be used to bolster up the old values and not to sustain the new. At 16 plus it would obviously not apply to the Public and Secondary School young people, but only to the ex-Elementary School product. If, on the other hand, it is taken at 18 plus or 19 plus and if education for parenthood and citizenship forms its chief content, then there is some hope that it may result in parents and citizens who are also knowledgeable about the essentials of education.

Some comments on the Bedford Conference may be worth reproducing here:

'The most stimulating and instructive four days I have spent for many a long time. I made many contacts, and I hope that I shall be able to maintain them, but

what struck me most about the Conference (certainly as far as Commission F was concerned) was that most people seemed to have *learned* something; there was no doubt about the seriousness with which people got down to the work.

'Just a short note to thank you again for your great kindness and the hospitality of the New Education Fellowship. I enjoyed the Conference immensely and also gained much valuable knowledge of the educationist's point of view and needs. The thing that impressed me most was that the needs most urgently expressed were again and again those which in the presence of a Health Centre would automatically be fulfilled—the education of the parent, the social environment, the necessity for contact with nature (farm and garden), the social contact of educationist and parent, the necessity for apparatus and instruments for activities of every sort, the necessity for a social life and wide range of activities for the adolescent. To these I would add two of my own, not so much expressed as implied: (i) the necessity for a vertical grouping of age levels to effect the necessary social integration and to provide the necessary social medium; and (ii) the necessity for a live and growing social medium in which the educationist himself may lead a full life outside his strictly technical duties.'

'I hope you felt the Conference was a success. I did, very thoroughly. There was more give and take in our commission, for example, than I'd thought possible; and unanimity was reached through our own changing of our attitudes—real education.'

'... to tell you how much I enjoyed the Conference at Bedford earlier in the month... The Bedford Conference was the first E.N.E.F. one that I had attended, and though at first I was rather critical because I thought the ground level should have been prepared more thoroughly, in the end I came to the conclusion that it was a splendid way to run a conference.'

These are only a sample. The significant thing is that they all

speak of the stimulation derived from the Conference and of the feeling that we were trying to solve our own problems—the essential democratic outlook.

There will be no general Conference at Christmas, but it is hoped that the Norwich and Luton groups will organize week-end conferences in their respective areas. It is hoped that every group of members, whether organized as a branch or not, will endeavour to study the findings of the Bedford Commissions and send to Headquarters the results of their deliberations. The Reports overlap at points and even contradict one another occasionally on the common territory. This was inevitable, but in view of the imminent introduction of a new Education Bill into the House no more fruitful task could be undertaken by any group of members than to attempt the reconciliation of the points left undecided at Bedford. If the Reports of Commissions A and B are considered, then B and C and so on, and the views of groups sent to Headquarters, most members would be thus able to continue the job which was started so well at Bedford. Such views would be published in due course and a general agreement reached.

It will be obvious to members that there is an increasing difficulty in organizing Conferences. In the first place, various Government Departments are making increasing demands upon the available accommodation for training schools of one kind or another. Then most colleges, still resident in their own buildings, are acting as hosts to some evacuated college, and this places an additional strain upon the domestic staff during term time, with the result that there is a desire to give them a complete rest during the vacations. Added to this the fuel restrictions present a difficulty during the winter months. All this points to the desirability of small groups of members getting together and

**THE ENGLISH NEW
EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP
THE NATIONAL FROEBEL
UNION**

**THE NURSERY SCHOOL
ASSOCIATION**

AND

**THE TRAINING COLLEGE
ASSOCIATION**

Propose to hold

A JOINT CONFERENCE

**FROM APRIL 28th
TO MAY 1st, 1943**

at University College, Nottingham

SUBJECT :

**Towards An Integrated
Education :**

a Comparative Study of National
Systems in
China, Norway, the U.S.S.R.
and the U.S.A.

The four co-operating societies wish to
learn for their own guidance the inte-
grating purpose of education in these
four countries, and the consequent
structures and content of their educa-
tional systems.

keeping alive the critical, experi-
mental, progressive attitude of the
Fellowship.

But at Easter it is hoped to hold
a Conference at Nottingham Uni-
versity, and it is hoped that
members will feel that its distinctive
features mark another step in the
pathway of practical effort upon
which the Fellowship has embarked.
The Fellowship is combining with
the Froebel Union, the Nursery
School Association and, probably,
the Training College Association,
to hold a Joint Conference. As has
been stated above, it will be held
at Nottingham and will last from
28th April to 1st May. It will
have to be a trifle shorter than
usual, and no lunch can be provided
on the last morning (Saturday),
although meetings will be able to
be held on that day. The general
topic will be Comparative Educa-
tion—a study of the Purpose,
Structure and Content of the edu-
cational systems of selected coun-
tries. The idea is to see how
purpose determines structure and
content, in order to be more clear
as to the relationship between them
in our own community. It is
hoped that speakers will be obtained

who have an *inside* knowledge of
the systems they discuss, and that
one session will be devoted to
purpose, one to structure and one
to content. The Conference will
divide into groups according to the
country each member wishes to
study in detail, but it is also hoped
that every member of the Confer-
ence will be able to hear a general
talk on each country.

The subject of this Conference is
important at a time when so much
discussion on the subject of recon-
struction is taking place, but it is
also important because here is a
concrete bit of co-operation by
progressive educational bodies. Un-
less we are to lose the impending
struggle for a revived educational
system, the forces that make for
reconstruction must unite in order
that they may exercise their full
weight. Divided they will be
beaten! United, there is such a
volume of opinion in their favour
that they are bound to win!

I have been asked to include a
short note in this Bulletin in answer
to the question
The Technique of Action 'What can *we* do
about the new
Bill?' I would

suggest that if it omits the essential
things or misdirects them (as
suggested above with regard to the
pre-adult year), members should :

(a) Organize a small group, pre-
pare a reasoned letter, and get it
inserted in the local press. It should
be signed by any number of people,
preferably of various occupations
and political parties. It should not
be as from an English N.E.F.
group, but as from a group of
interested people. Never believe
such letters do not have any effect.
If there are enough of them and
they are written periodically they
have a very marked effect. We
have enough members to get such
a letter into practically every
provincial paper in the country.
Do not let the effort die down after
the first letter. Remember that it
is the constant dripping that wears
away the stone.

(b) Write similar letters to the
local Member of Parliament and to
any potential candidates in your
area. Press for an answer and a
definite decision. Such letters are
best if they are *individual*. Get as
many people as possible to write
letters bearing on the point to be
raised. If a Member gets one

letter he thinks it a bore; if he
gets ten he wonders what is in the
wind; if he gets twenty he sits up
and takes notice. Members count
in numbers; they get their seats by
counting numbers. See that your
head is counted on the right side.

(c) Organize meetings in collabora-
tion with other bodies — the
W.E.A., the Co-operative Educa-
tion Guilds, the N.U.T., Women's
Institutes, Townswomen's Guilds,
etc. Go and talk to them about
progressive education. If we are
to win, once more, we have to
make the community educationally
conscious. You cannot leave this
to others. *If only you* will do your
part this next year, the recompense
may well be beyond our wildest
expectation at the moment. The
harvest of goodwill is there—
waiting to be garnered. Every
members of the E.N.E.F. should
play a part in *this* harvesting.

(a) **Derby.**—The following report
has been received from the Derby
Branch.

Groups 'The first meeting of the
Derby Branch, since its
inauguration, was held on June
1st, 1942, at Parkfields Cedars
School, by kind permission of the
Headmistress.

'About 35 people were present,
nearly all intending members.

'The provisional committee's
recommendations were put before
the meeting. These consisted of
the constitution of the Derby
Branch and nominations for the
Executive Committee, which was
to elect officers for the first year
from among its members. These
recommendations were carried, as a
proposal, by the meeting.

'It was then decided that it might
be possible to carry out an investi-
gation of local Youth work. As a
preliminary, representatives of
Youth work in Derby and Derby-
shire were to be asked to outline
their work at the next meeting.

'A lively discussion then took
place on "Are we educating Derby
children for Citizenship?" This
was opened by Mr. H. Whitaker,
who said that in general our educa-
tion was concerned too much with
lesson books and not enough with
Citizenship, that it was too far
removed from the realities of a
child's life.

'The discussion was then thrown
open and ranged far and wide.
The teaching of History forwards

The accounts for the year ending September 30th, 1942, have now been audited and are *Accounts* given below in a summarised form. It will be observed that there is a balance of £76 18s. 8d. in hand on the year's working. When these accounts were before the Executive Committee they expressed their congratulations to the Officers of the Fellowship. It is gratifying to know that we have come through a year of expansion and all that that involves with a balance in hand. The position of the Fellowship in the educational world becomes more and more responsible as its influence grows. Each member can help in a practical way by obtaining new members. If everyone could add one more member during the next three months we should be in a position to do all we want to without having to consider whether our funds would permit it. It is not that quantity of membership is all-important; quality is what is most desirable. But if a struggle is to be waged the tools must be available.

October 14th, 1942.

Twenty-five years ago the Fisher Act was passed. Next year may see a 'Butler' Act.

A New Act— What a difference those twenty-five years have made in our views of what is essential. The Fisher Act, under the circumstances which existed at the time, was a most progressive measure, and it is to be regretted that so much that was vital in it was never implemented. But we did not then realize the full significance of the challenge that was confronting our community. To return to Fisher will not solve the problems of to-day. We realize that the cure must be more drastic than that, and that in finding our solution we must look forward to the needs of the post-war world and not back to the solutions of pre-war problems. That suggests another fruitful exercise for groups. What should be the main clauses of the new Bill? To be specific, how would your group deal with:

- (a) Nursery education
- (b) The Common School
- (c) Multilateral Schools
- (d) Private and Public Schools
- (e) The Pre-Adult Year
- (f) The Dual System
- (g) The relation between education and industry.

Draw up a Bill of, say, ten clauses covering the main points in brief. If they are sent to me, I will print three in a future Bulletin. Here is an opportunity to state your proposals in concrete form.

It is to be hoped that members are recording carefully the effects of the impact of the war upon education. **War Experience** Under existing conditions much is coming to light that is normally below the surface and not realised. To allow all this experience to pass unrecorded would mean the loss of knowledge which we very badly need. It will not do to think we can recall it when we need it for, seen in retrospect, it changes. What is needed is the factual day by day record. In any area a group could be very profitably employed in compiling a 'scrap book' containing all cuttings, reports, letters, comments, upon such things as war time nurseries, school feeding, health of children, youth registration, youth clubs, pre-service training, etc. Such a book would be of

the greatest value as a 'source book' to our successors. In these days when newspapers and journals are so rapidly salvaged and repulped, there is all the more need to keep such a record.

Miss I. L. Mumford, of 37 Woolstone Road, London, S.E.23, a member of the **Research Work—English Studies** Fellowship, is willing to collect accounts of research work in progress in the Teaching of English. She writes: 'It seems to me possible that individual teachers may be trying out different things in their own schools, but no one gets the benefit of their labours because there is no means of spreading their ideas. If they would like to write to me, giving an outline of what they have tried to do, and the results, with necessary particulars about age of children, material used, purpose of the experiment, and so forth, I could collect and classify it and get some idea of what was being done and make a report on it later. It might also become a medium for the exchange of ideas.'

This is the type of work which so badly needs doing. Much research work is duplicated because there is no channel of communication. Will any teacher who has tried any experimental work in English write to Miss Mumford, who will classify and correlate the matter she receives and publish a summary in this Bulletin in due course.

In accordance with the Provisional Constitution, a new Executive Committee will be elected during December. **Executive Election** Will all members note that nominations and votes *must* be received by the dates given in the letter which accompanies them. Late nominations and votes cannot be admitted.

With the growth of interest in the Fellowship the demand for speakers who can state the point of view of the Fellowship is increasing. **Speakers** The essentials are a sense of purpose, a real faith and a knowledge of the problems. Will any member who would be prepared to go and talk to a group of people near his or her home let me know, stating the kind of topic upon which they would feel most at

LUTON REGION BRANCH E.N.E.F.

INTEND HOLDING A
WEEK-END

CONFERENCE

January 9th & 10th

on lines indicated by Dr. Stead in this bulletin.

For particulars apply—

Mr. K. R. WEBB,

Modern School, Luton, Beds., or

Capt. LOTHIAN SMALL, 1 Neville Drive, N.2

home? If I had some such names it might be of real assistance and furnish members with a very well worthwhile job.

I find that in the course of these notes I have made a number of suggestions as to the activities of members and groups. Perhaps it will be as well to summarize them here.

Work for Members and Groups

Here they are, then:

(1) Consider the Reports of the Commissions at the Bedford Conference and integrate them 'end on'.

(2) Prepare and keep up to date a scrap book showing the impact of the war upon education in any area.

(3) Prepare a ten clause Education Bill dealing briefly with the main controversial issues (three to be published).

(4) Write to the local press and to Members of Parliament upon the major educational issues.

(5) Organize meetings—however small.

(6) Offer to speak—it is the first plunge that is frightening.

(7) If you have, or are, experimenting in English Teaching, write to Miss Mumford.

(8) Increase the Membership.

This will be the last Bulletin before Christmas. I should, therefore, like to send to all members my wish that in their work they will find such satisfaction, peace, and sense of fulfilment, that they will cease not from their labours until through them they give the same joys to all men.

[Correspondence about Teacher training and the Married Woman Teacher and Various reports have had to be omitted for lack of space. Ed.]

Directory of Schools—continued

BEDALES SCHOOL

PETERSFIELD HANTS (Founded 1893)

A Co-educational Boarding School for boys and girls from 11–19. Separate Junior School for those from 5–11. Inspected by the Board of Education. Country estate of 150 acres. Home Farm. Education is on modern lines and aims at securing the fullest individual development in, and through, the community. Scholarships offered, including some for Arts and Music.

Headmaster : **F. A. MEIER, M.A.(Camb.)**

LEIGHTON PARK SCHOOL READING

Six Open Scholarships value £84–£50, and additional Exhibitions of £50–£40, for general ability, Music and Art, will be awarded in March.

Basic fees 150 gns. per annum, inclusive.

*For particulars apply to the Headmaster,
E. B. CASTLE, M.A. (Oxon.)*

KIDSTONES SCHOOL

BISHOPDALE, LEYBURN, YORKS.

At Kidstones safety from the physical and mental effects of the war helps children to grow into balanced, cultivated citizens. The staff work with the children to this end.

LONG DENE SCHOOL

THE MANOR HOUSE STOKE PARK
BUCKINGHAMSHIRE

Co-educational, from 4–19 years.

A safe, and perfect, place for children. Food reform diet. Working to high standards in scholarship, arts and practical living, this self-governed community has a new world outlook and a keenly alive specialist staff.

Headmaster:
JOHN GUINNESS, B.A. (Oxon.)

KESWICK SCHOOL, DERWENTWATER

Headmaster : **H. W. Howe, M.A.**

Keswick school provides a sanely progressive education founded on religious principles and carried out in the ideal surroundings of the Lake District. The environment is peculiarly varied. Differences of social class, sex, and nationality, of the town and country, of home life and the boarding school, all contribute their influence in building up the community and through the community the individual. Tradition and experiment blend in a well balanced curriculum. Emphasis is laid on Music, Art, Handicraft and Physical Training, without losing sight of a high scholastic standard. New Boarding House for boys and girls of Preparatory school age now open.

Fees £82 a year subject to reduction by Bursari

All further particulars from the Headmaster

HURTWOOD SCHOOL

Peaslake

Nr. Guildford

Co-educational from 3 years.

Modern building equipped for children in beautiful and healthy surroundings. The school aims at a high standard of scholarship in addition to health and happiness.

It wishes to attain a constructively progressive outlook without reaction, and believes that this can be done where tolerance is based upon sound knowledge and understanding.

Full particulars from the Principal :
JANET JEWSON, M.A., N.F.U.

BEVERLEY SCHOOL

CLUNES LODGE, near BLAIR ATHOLL,
Perthshire

Small boarding school for boys and girls, 2 to 9 years, in ideal surroundings. Progressive, individual methods, outdoor activities, musical training.

MOORLAND SCHOOL THE BIGGINS, KIRKBY LONSDALE

Home School for boys and girls 3 to 12 years, where the children lead a happy, healthy life amidst beautiful surroundings.

Sound education on natural lines, giving scope for initiative and creative work, aiming at the development of balanced personalities.

Principals : D. EVELYN KING, L.L.A.; AGNES E. CRANE.

FROEBEL PREPARATORY SCHOOL

Little Gaddesden, Herts.

Sound modern education for boys and girls aged 5–12 years. Inclusive boarding fee.

Headmistress : **Miss O. B. PRIESTMAN, B.A., N.F.U.**

MOIRA HOUSE (of EASTBOURNE) now at FERRY HOTEL, WINDERMERE

Recognized by the Board of Education.

Boarding School for Girls from 6 to 18 ; small brothers (aged 6 to 8) also received.

*Principals : Miss GERTRUDE A. INGHAM.
Miss MONA SWANN.
Vice-Principal : Miss EDITH TIZZARD, B.A., Hons. Lond.*

THE BELTANE SCHOOL

Shaw Hill, Melksham, Wilts. Boys and girls from five to eighteen.

Good academic standards. Undisturbed district.

Directory of Schools—continued

Edgewood, Greenwich, Connecticut. A Boarding and Day School for Boys and Girls from Kindergarten to College. Twenty-acre campus, athletic field, skating, ski-ing, tennis and all outdoor sports. Teachers' Training Course. Illustrated Catalogue describes activities and progressive aim.
E. E. LANGLEY, Principal, 201 Rockridge.

HIGH MARCH, BEACONSFIELD, BUCKS. A Progressive Preparatory School for girls to 14, and little boys. The School aims at giving a sound education with special emphasis on art, music, and creative activities. Headmistress: Miss Warr.

GREAT SARRATT HALL, SARRATT, HERTS. Nursery and Preparatory Boarding School for children from birth to 10 years. Parents and school work in close co-operation. Group limited to twelve children. Qualified resident and visiting teachers. Principal: Gladys Raymond.

HERRIES HOME SCHOOL, Cookham Dean, Berks. for Girls 5 to 18 years. Boys Pre-Prep. Beautiful surroundings, real home atmosphere. Progressive education examinations prepared for. Special devotion to the Arts. Highly-qualified Staff. Swimming Pool, Games Field, Riding, Carpentry, etc.

PINEHURST, Goudhurst. On the beautiful Kentish Weald. Progressive School. Co-educational 3-12 years. Sound education. Crafts. Riding. Food Reform Diet. Sun and Air Bathing. Excellent health record. Miss M. B. Reid, Principal.

DANESFIELD PREPARATORY SCHOOL, RYDENS ROAD, WALTON-ON-THAMES. Tel. 930. Parents and teachers co-operate to give the children the best possible conditions for education. The adults form a democratic organization and the children learn the necessity of community service. Nursery to 14 years. Pleasant house and grounds. Qualified staff.

BUNCE COURT SCHOOL, at Trench Hall, Wem, Salop. Co-educational 5-17. Recognized Bd. of Ed. Qualified academic, gardening, domestic science staff. Principal: Anna Essinger, M.A.

THE MOUNT SCHOOL, MILL HILL, N.W.7. Now on Cotswolds, at Amberley, Nr. Stroud, Glos. Large qualified staff, small classes, centre for Oxford Examinations. Girls 5-18.—Mary Macgregor, B.A. (Lond.), Camb. Teachers' Diploma.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S SCHOOL, Belsize Lane, Hampstead with GLENDOWER SCHOOL, now at SYDENHAM HOUSE, LEWDOWN, DEVON. Beautiful house and grounds. Upper and Middle School for Girls. Preparatory for boys and girls 4-10. Boarding and Day.

STANWAY SCHOOL, DORKING. Home and Day co-educational Preparatory School to 14 years. Nursery Class. Entire charge taken. Specially designed building on high ground. Education as an atmosphere, a discipline, and a life.

Directory of Training Centres

SWANLEY HORTICULTURAL COLLEGE, Kent prepares students for B.Sc. Hort. (London) as well as for College Diploma and Certificates in Horticulture. Demand for trained women greater than supply. Apply for illustrated prospectus.

LEARN TO WRITE AND SPEAK for child welfare and human brotherhood, harnessing artistic, intuitive, and intellectual gifts, and teaching and organizing experience. Correspondence lessons 5/- each, usually taken at fortnightly or monthly intervals. Miss Dorothy Matthews, B.A., 32 Primrose Hill Road, London, N.W.3.

POSTS VACANT AND WANTED, etc.

RATES: 1s. 3d. per six words. Minimum 18 words. *These charges must be prepaid and copy received by the FIFTEENTH of the month preceding publishing date.*

BRITISH M.A. (Hons. Eng. and Phil.) and wife (child welfare expert; mother-tongue French) educating intelligent boy, 15, backward in 3 R's, in their sunny home with garden, London, N.2. Would board and undertake or supervise education of suitable companion, accompanied or not by parent. Box 245.

RECOMMENDED: Teacher of gym., rhythmic movement, percussion band, trained in Munich, seeks private or school work near London. Box 243.

HOLIDAY Post wanted by progressive woman, experienced boys, girls. Box 246.

FOYLE'S, Booksellers and Publishers, always have vacancies for school leavers, both on the bookselling and clerical side. Interesting work and excellent prospects. Apply Foyle's, 121 Charing Cross Road, W.C.2.

WOMAN TEACHER, 32, married; London B.Sc. Hons. degree in Mathematics, First Class; six years experience, seeks post in progressive School. Some advanced work preferred. Box 244.

POST wanted by progressive woman, experienced children 4 to 19. English subjects to S.C., Art and Handwork. Knowledge child psychology. Box 247.

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